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Speciation and hybridization in Jamaican-endemic Streamertail Hummingbirds (*Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*)

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**SPECIATION AND HYBRIDIZATION IN JAMAICAN-
ENDEMIC STREAMERTAIL HUMMINGBIRDS
(*TROCHILUS POLYTMUS* AND *T. SCITULUS*)**

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The Department of Biological Sciences
and
Museum of Natural Science

Caroline D. Judy
B.Sc. University of Georgia, 2002
M.Sc. University of Missouri-St. Louis, 2007
December 2018



John O'Neill, 1976

To Dan and our Rose.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	ix
CHAPTERS	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. DENSITY AND ABUNDANCE OF THE BLACK-BILLED STREAMERTAIL (<i>TROCHILUS SCITULUS</i>) IN EASTERN JAMAICA.....	9
3. MORPHOLOGICAL AND GENETIC CHARACTERIZATION OF THE HYBRID ZONE BETWEEN JAMAICAN-ENDEMIC STREAMERTAIL HUMMINGBIRDS (<i>TROCHILUS POLYTMUS</i> AND <i>T.</i> <i>SCITULUS</i>).....	33
4. A TRANSCRIPTOMICS APPROACH TO IDENTIFYING THE GENETIC BASIS OF DIVERGENT BILL COLOR IN JAMAICAN STREAMERTAIL HUMMINGBIRDS.....	77
5. DISCUSSION.....	114
APPENDICES	
APPENDIX A. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 3.....	119
APPENDIX B. SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 4.....	150
APPENDIX C. PUBLISHING AGREEMENT.....	185
VITA.....	187

ABSTRACT

Streamertails hummingbirds (*Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*) are recently diverged sister taxa that appear to have speciated *in situ* on the island of Jamaica. They are distinguished by male bill color, a secondary sexual trait that is coral red in *T. polytmus* and jet black in *T. scitulus*. They hybridize in a narrow zone where their ranges meet in eastern Jamaica. In Chapter 2, I performed a formal population survey of *T. scitulus* to determine the size of the population, which was unknown. I determined that the total population contains well over 100,000 individuals despite its limited geographic range. In Chapter 3, I build on previous studies to identify divergent morphological and genetic traits. Additionally, I use geographic cline models to determine the center and widths of individual clines and make inferences about the relative strength of selection acting on each trait. The clines for male bill color (2.2 km) and bill width (13.9 km) were narrow relative to neutral expectations and centered on the Rio Grande Valley. Female values were slightly wider. Consistent with expectations for recently diverged species, I detected little to no neutral genomic differentiation using six microsatellites, but a Radseq dataset containing 6,451 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) generated by a genotyping-by-sequencing protocol showed modest genetic differentiation between species. A narrow subset of SNPs ($n = 23$) with high loadings in a discriminant function analysis may be physically or epistatically linked to the divergent morphological traits. A structure analysis based on these discriminant SNPs shows a range of admixture assignments in the hybrid zones and strong differences in assignment between the parental species. A geographic cline analysis based on admixture assignments revealed a narrow cline (6.6 km) also centered on the Rio Grande. Finally, I performed a transcriptomics study to

examine baseline differences in gene expression. While gene expression profiles were extremely similar, four genes showed significant gene expression differences. One gene, *BLOC-1S1*, is a ubiquitously expressed gene that is associated with pigmentation disorders in mice and humans. Its role in avian pigmentation is not well characterized, but is one gene that warrants further investigation as a candidate gene underpinning male bill color. I also looked at sequence divergence across the assembled transcripts. This panel of SNPs showed low divergence and little evidence for positive selection, indicating that divergent genes may be few and potentially located in regulatory regions not captured here.

CHAPTER 1.

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the drivers of speciation in nature is an overarching goal of evolutionary biology. Molecular genetic studies have contributed to the view that speciation is a continuum (Powell et al. 2013; Seehausen et al. 2014). In this view, parapatric races and their hybrid zones may be seen as representative stages in the divergence process (Hewitt 1988). Such ‘races’ of incipient taxa are important model systems for examining divergent phenotypes and their role in speciation before reproductive isolation has evolved (Shaw and Mullen 2011; Nosil and Feder 2013; Powell et al. 2013; Seehausen et al. 2014). Because early-stage divergence can transition rapidly (Gavrilets 2003), catching races in this early snapshot of speciation can be challenging.

I use the recently diverged streamertail hummingbirds (Trochilidae: *Trochilus*) as a study system to examine hybridization and speciation. These Jamaican endemics offer a rare glimpse of incipient speciation to occur *in situ* within the confines of a small oceanic island. They are distinguished primarily by male bill color (Fig. 1.1), which is bright red in the red-billed streamertail (*Trochilus polytmus*) and jet black in the black-billed streamertail (*T. scitulus*). They are considered subspecies by the American Ornithologists Society (Chesser et al. 2018). However, Karl Schuchmann treats them as full species based on noted differences in courtship and song (Schuchmann 1978, 1980).

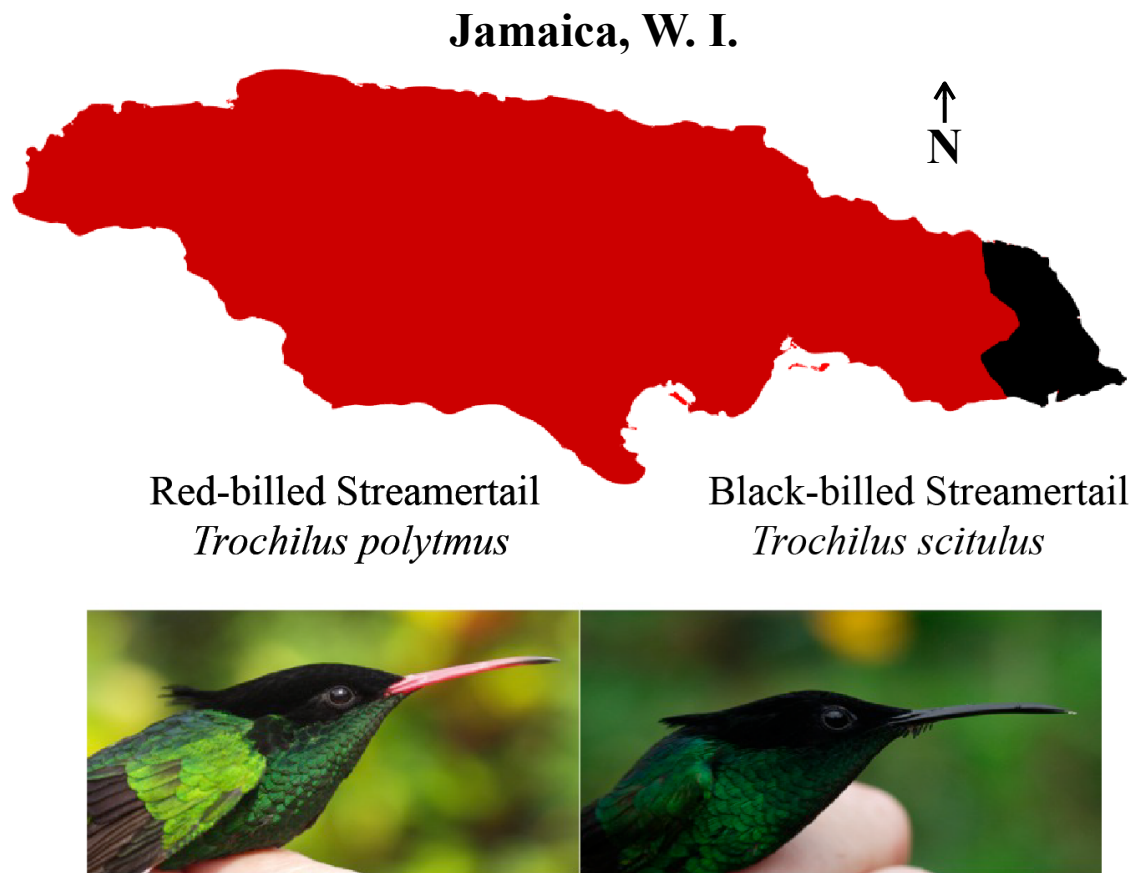


Fig. 1.1. Schema depicting the approximate ranges of *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus* on Jamaica, West Indies. Photographs are of *T. polytmus* (left) and *T. scitulus* (right). Photo credit: Gary R. Graves.

In Chapter 2, I determine the previously unknown population size and density of the black-billed streamertail. The black-billed streamertail and the red-billed streamertail form parapatric distributions on the island, but the red-billed streamertail is much more widespread. They form a narrow hybrid zone where their ranges meet in eastern Jamaica. The IUCN Red List classifies the black-billed streamertail as Least Concern (Conservation International 2012) based on observations that it appears common where it occurs. However, a formal survey is warranted because its entire geographic range is less than 600 km². This small range makes the species inherently more vulnerable to

extinction. I conducted a point count survey ($n = 530$) and used distance-based approaches to estimate population density within the study range. Robust density and abundance estimates are useful for setting conservation and management strategies and inform hybrid zone dynamics.

Hybrid zones are natural laboratories to examine the characters and processes involved in divergence and the evolution of barriers to gene flow (Hewitt 1988; Harrison 1990). Barriers to gene flow are broadly classified as prezygotic or postzygotic (Ernst Mayr 1942; Dobzhansky 1982). In birds, the impressive diversity of display traits used to attract mates has inspired the hypothesis that prezygotic mechanisms may potentially have a bigger role (Uy et al. 2018). In this view, diversifying sexual selection may figure prominently in avian speciation (West-Eberhard 1983), which is supported by the observation that even distantly related taxa can hybridize successfully though close relatives can coexist sympatrically (reviewed in Uy et al. 2018).

In Chapter 3, I examined the morphological and genetic structure of the hybrid zone between streamertail hummingbirds. I characterized two morphological traits previously shown to be divergent: bill color and bill width (Brewster and Bangs 1901; Gill et al. 1973; Graves 2009a, 2015). I also measured variation in skeletal features, which I used as correlates of body size, following methods in (Graves 2009b). To examine genetic traits, I characterized six microsatellites and a 6,451 SNPs from a genotyping by sequencing (GBS) dataset. I used a combination of clustering and multivariate approaches to identify informative loci. I fit cline models to morphological and genetic traits that showed clinal variation, and use the estimated cline widths to make inferences about selection.

In Chapter 4, I use a transcriptomics approach to study the genetic and regulatory basis for divergence between streamertails. RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) is a cost-effective technology that has enabled transcriptome profiling in nonmodel organisms at an unprecedented rate (Toews et al. 2015; Jax et al. 2018). I assembled a transcriptome based on seven libraries of streamertail hummingbirds and used Blast2Go to annotate it. I performed an analysis of differential gene expression and used alignments of the raw sequencing reads to the *de novo* assembly to call genome-wide SNPs. I explored the function of the differentially expressed genes and looked for signatures of positive selection in the SNPs using an F_{ST} outlier method.

The most obvious morphological trait difference between streamertails is male bill color, which is coral red and narrowly tipped in black (partially melanized) in the red-billed streamertail (*Trochilus polytmus*), and jet black (fully melanized) in the black-billed streamertail (*T. scitulus*). In field-based collections, the red coloration of *T. polytmus* fades rapidly post mortem, suggesting that the bill appears red due to the presence of highly vascularized tissues rather than a red pigment such as a carotenoid or phyomelanin (Graves 2009a, 2015). For this reason, I hypothesize that bill color is controlled by melanin-pathway genes, which have been well studied in other vertebrates, especially humans and laboratory strains of mice (Hoekstra 2006), and to a lesser extent in birds (Poelstra et al. 2013). I used this rich knowledge base to create a custom dataset of known pigmentation genes to further annotate my transcriptome assembly, and for use in future enrichment and pathway studies in conjunction with the panel of discovered RNA-seq SNPs.

In sum, I provide the first formal survey of population size and density for the black-billed streamertail (Chapter 2), which is useful as a benchmark study of population size going forward. In Chapter 3, I performed the first comprehensive analysis of the streamertail hybrid zone between incipient species of streamertail hummingbirds in the genus *Trochilus* and make inferences regarding the role of selection to promote divergence. Finally, in Chapter 4, I assembled a *Trochilus* transcriptome and examine differences in expression profiles and sequence divergence between these recent species. Collectively, this body of work addresses the morphological and genetic changes that are emerging in recently diverged lineages to shed light on what might be driving speciation within the confines of a small oceanic island.

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CHAPTER 2.

DENSITY AND ABUNDANCE OF THE BLACK-BILLED STREAMERTAIL (*TROCHILUS SCITULUS*) IN EASTERN JAMAICA

INTRODUCTION

The black-billed streamertail (*Trochilus scitulus*) is a Jamaican endemic hummingbird that is geographically restricted to the extreme eastern end of the island (Brewster and Bangs 1901, Gill et al. 1973, Graves 2015). The black-billed streamertail is replaced to the west by its congener, the red-billed streamertail (*Trochilus polytmus*, Linnaeus 1758), with which it hybridizes (Gill et al. 1973; Graves 2015). The males of both species possess the velvet black crests, emerald gorgets, and elaborate tail plumes from which their common name is derived (Fig. 2.1), but are distinguished by bill color, which is jet black in the black-billed streamertail, and coral red in the red-billed streamertail. Despite its much smaller geographic range, the black-billed streamertail is currently classified by the IUCN as ‘Least Concern’ ver 3.1 (Birdlife International 2012) due to the fact that it appears common where it occurs. However, a formal population survey is needed to more rigorously assess its population status.

The black-billed streamertail range in the John Crow and Blue Mountains is composed primarily of wet montane forest and surrounding coastal lowlands. The north-facing slopes receive the most rain on the island. Here, the black-billed streamertail occurs east of the Rio Grande Valley. Along Jamaica’s southern coast, it is found east of the Morant River Valley. The red-billed streamertail is widely distributed across most of the rest of the island. Where their parapatric ranges meet in the Rio Grande Valley they form a narrow zone of hybridization (Gill et al. 1973, Graves 2015). These sister taxa



Fig. 2.1. Mature black-billed streamertail (*Trochilus scitulus*) near Bath in eastern Jamaica. Photo by Caroline Judy.

may represent a rare example of *in situ* speciation to occur on a small island (Coyne and Price 2000); Jamaica is less than 11,000 km². The distributional limits of the two species and the geographic boundaries of their hybrid zone are well characterized (Gill et al. 1973). However, the evolutionary mechanisms that maintain their species-level distinctiveness in the face of ongoing hybridization are unknown and currently under investigation (Graves 2009a, b, 2015; Lance et al. 2009; McCormack et al. 2012).

Both the male and the female black-billed streamertail produce call notes (Schuchmann 1977). The black-billed streamertail call is a simple repeated high-pitched note that can be heard up to 200 m away, depending on habitat features. The typical male

song is a squeaky, trilling vocalization (Schuchmann 1977, 1980). In addition, the fluttering wing feathers of adult males produce a shrill whirring noise (Gosse 1847; Clark 2008). This fluttering is detectable at close range (i.e. within 15 m). Little is known about female song, and females do not produce the whirring noise in flight.

Schuchmann (1999) speculates that there are approximately 12 pairs/km² of red-billed streamertail in the Blue Mountains and 3-6 pairs/km² of black-billed streamertail in the vicinity of Port Antonio (Portland Parish) and Bath (St. Thomas Parish), though the year(s) and season(s) on which these estimates are based are unspecified. Wunderle et al. (1992) report that prior to Hurricane Gilbert in 1988, red-billed streamertail densities were 0.77 individuals per census point in montane cloud forest habitats, with lower densities in other habitats and at lower elevations. While Schuchmann's observations suggest that black-billed streamertail density may be lower than that of red-billed streamertail, the lack of current population information for either species limits interspecific comparisons. The smaller range size and potentially lower density of the black-billed streamertail may make it more susceptible to population declines related to habitat perturbation. Here, I conduct a point count survey and use conventional distance sampling methods (Buckland et al. 2001) to provide a rigorous assessment of the black-billed streamertail population density and global abundance.

METHODS

The point count survey protocol was field tested in January 2014 on a red-billed streamertail population in Trelawny Parish. I then conducted a survey of the black-billed streamertail population over 18 days (5-23 February 2014) in Portland and St. Thomas Parishes during daylight hours between 06:15 and 18:00h. The rough terrain and limited

access to large regions within the range of the black-billed streamertail prevented the use of a randomized survey design. I conducted the point count survey along roads, community footpaths, and forestry trails. Roughly 90% of the survey was conducted via a four-wheel vehicle. I traveled on foot along community footpaths in a few areas where there were no larger roads. I spaced the survey points at least 200 m apart in order to minimize counting the same bird at multiple consecutive census points.

I surveyed primary and secondary montane rain forest, gardens, orchards, landscaped residential areas, mixed agricultural areas such as shaded coffee groves, forested perimeters of banana and coconut plantations, dasheen fields, pasturelands, and patchworks of small agricultural plots near homesteads. A point was considered suitable if it supported at least 10% forest cover, loosely defined, within a 15 m radius of the station. Additionally, points had to be located within 10 m of a tree that was at least 10 m high. These criteria helped to exclude poor habitat areas such as large monocultures of sugar cane and other crops, open pastures, and fallow fields. I also avoided surveying near town centers, church services, schools in session, or noisy homesteads where human activities hindered the survey effort.

After arriving to a point, I recorded the date, time of day, geographic coordinates, and elevation using a Garmin® Vista HCx GPS. I made notes on the weather conditions and habitat features, including visible nectar sources. After these data were recorded, at least two observers (the author and one other) scanned the area for black-billed streamertail using Nikon Monarch 8x42 binoculars during a three-minute counting period. The horizontal distance to each detected individual was measured or estimated using a Simmons® LRF 600 rangefinder or a Garmin® Vista HCx GPS and recorded in a

field notebook. After the counting window, additional notes on nectar sources were also recorded, as well as presence of other nectar feeding birds. Finally, digital photographs were taken to further document habitat features.

The black-billed streamertail was detected visually and aurally. For each detected streamertail, I noted whether the detection was fluttering, calling, singing, or visual. In regions that are geographically within or near the contact zone, I spent additional effort to identify each individual as a black-billed streamertail, red-billed streamertail, or putative hybrid. Details on sex, molt, and behavior were also recorded when possible. These data were used collectively to determine the minimum number of black-billed streamertail individuals at each point.

The survey area encompasses most of the known geographic range for the black-billed streamertail (Fig. 2.2). I constructed a minimum convex polygon (MCP) around all survey points using the minimum bounding geometry tool in ArcGIS software v. 10.2.

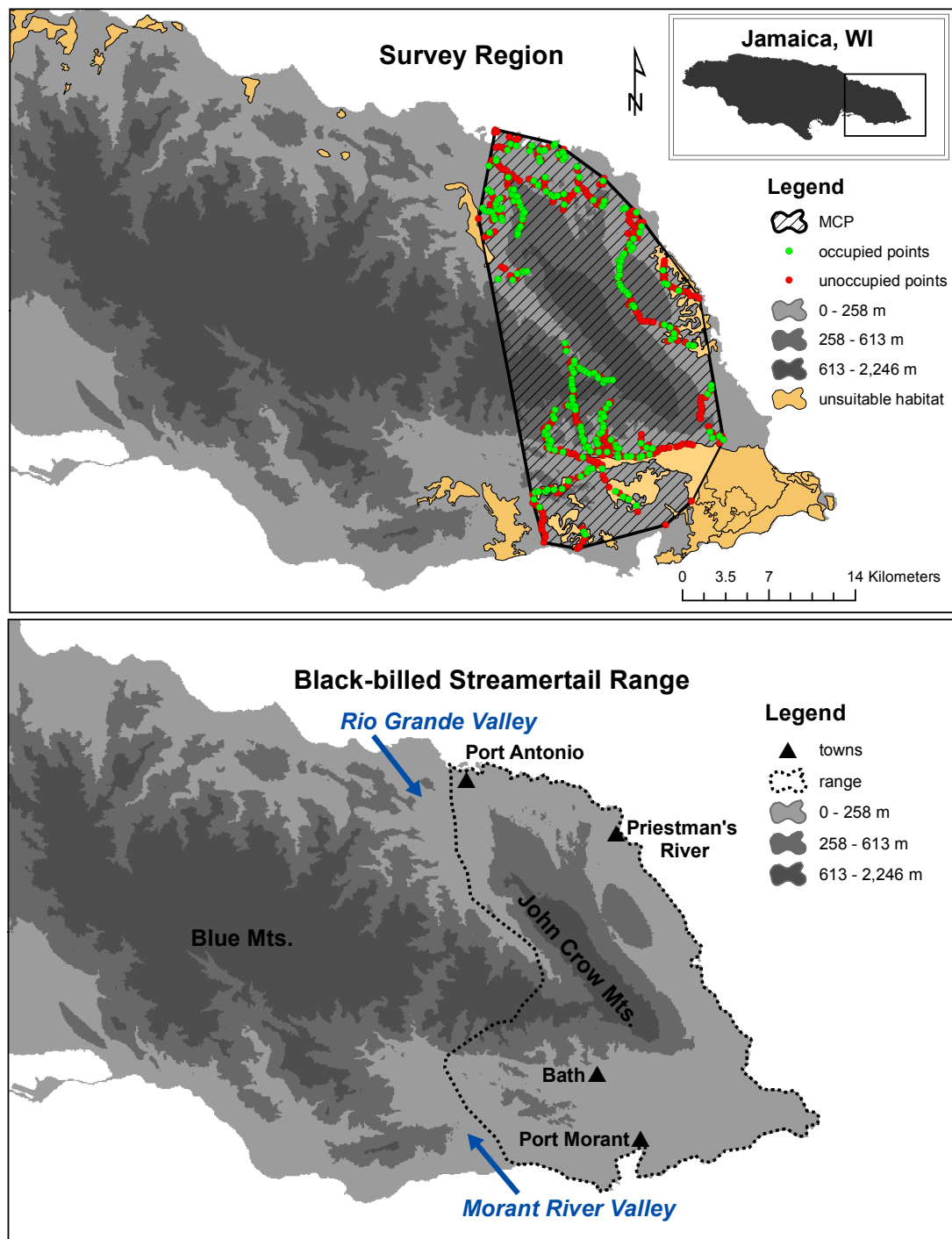


Fig. 2.2. Top: Survey region. The shaded polygon represents the minimum convex polygon (MCP). Bottom: Black-billed streamertail range. The exact area of transition from the red-billed to black-billed streamertail in the Blue Mountains is uncertain.

The total area of the resulting MCP is 453 km². I assessed the habitat suitability within the MCP using the LU1984 coverage layer available from the Forestry Department (http://www.forestry.gov.jm/maps_data_page.html). I designated regions as “unsuitable” that are described in the LU1984 coverage layer as “tree crops, shrub crops, sugar cane, and banana.” While small agricultural areas and the tree-lined edges of large agricultural fields are suitable for the black-billed streamertail, the deforested areas are not. Removing these areas from the MCP yields an adjusted area of 422 km². I also used 2012 Google Earth Pro satellite images of Portland and St. Thomas Parishes to identify additional areas of deforestation. Visual inspection of Google satellite images revealed that an additional 15 - 20% of the MCP may be deforested or otherwise heavily impacted. Therefore, I conservatively set the size of the survey area to be 329 km², or 80% of the adjusted land area within the MCP.

Distance Sampling

Distance sampling allows rigorous estimation of density in the face of variability in detection (Buckland et al. 2001). A key assumption is that points are located at random with respect to the birds, such that changes in the number of birds observed with increasing distance from the point can be interpreted as changes in detectability, rather than density. More specifically, distance sampling uses the distribution of the observed distances to estimate a detection function $g(y)$, the probability of detecting a bird at distance y . This function can then be used to estimate the average probability of detecting a bird within distance w of the point, denoted P_a . Given an estimate of P_a , bird density can be estimated as

$$D = n/aP_a$$

where n is the number of birds detected and a is the size of the covered region. Finally, abundance can be estimated by extrapolation of the estimated density within the covered region to the larger study area.

I evaluated the fit of the uniform, half-normal, and hazard-rate detection models with quantile-quantile plots and goodness-of-fit tests (Buckland et al. 2001) to six data filters corresponding to three data types (ungrouped, grouped using five equal cutpoints away from favored numbers, grouped using 8 equal cutpoints), and two truncation schemes ($w = 40$ meters, no truncation). Model selection was made using the Akaike's Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike 1973), and precision was estimated analytically (see details in Fewster et al. 2009; Thomas et al. 2010). All analyses were implemented in the Distance 7.2 software (Thomas et al. 2010).

Variable Circular Plot method

I used the variable circular plot method of (Reynolds et al. 1980) to provide an independent calculation of density and abundance for the black-billed streamertail population. I summarized the detections by their horizontal distances in 5 m bands around the point, i.e. at 5, 10, 15, 20 m, etc. I then calculated the density of detections in each band by dividing the number of detections by the area of that band. The inflection point, or the distance at which detection densities decline more than 50%, serves as a guideline for drawing the effective census radius, beyond which observations are discarded (additional details in Reynolds et al. 1980). The calculation for density is based on only observations that fall within the effective census radius. Finally, I estimated abundance as

the product of density, occupancy rate (proportion of points that were occupied vs. unoccupied), and the size of the survey region.

RESULTS

Distance Sampling

I detected a total of 287 individuals at 530 survey points (Fig. 2.2). Aural detections (calling, singing, and fluttering; $n = 159$) constituted 55% of all detections (Fig. 2.3A). Fluttering had the closest mean distance from the point (6.60 m), and calling had the farthest (31.4 m). The maximum detection distance was 80 m, considerably greater than the second largest distance, 60 m. As is common for point count surveys, there was a long tail of distribution; the median distance was 15 m.

Visual inspection of the data revealed a signal for an excess of observations at zero distance from the point, or spiking, which indicates rounding to zero. There was also a strong pattern of favored numbers (heaping), and appearance of over-dispersion (Fig. 2.3B), suggesting the data should be grouped into intervals for reliable analysis.

Truncation of distances to 40 m removed 21 or 7.3% of observations from the dataset. Truncation improved reliability of the goodness-of-fit tests by increasing the expected values in the largest distance intervals, though it reduced precision (Table 2.1 & Table 2.2).

Table 2.1. Summary of AIC values for two truncation values, $w = 40$, and $w = \text{largest observation}$. The data were analyzed ungrouped and with two different groupings: five intervals of equal widths with cutpoints away from favored values, and eight intervals of equal widths. For each data type, an asterisk indicates which model had the smallest AIC score. AIC scores for failed models are indicated by “n.a.”

Data type	Model (Key + adjustment)	$w = 40$			$w = \text{largest observation}$		
		No. of parameters			No. of parameters		
		Key	Adjustments	AIC	Key	Adjustments	AIC
Ungrouped	Half normal + cosine	1	3	3,503.8	1	4	3,831.8
	Half normal + Hermite	1	0	n.a.	1	0	n.a.
	Uniform + cosine*	0	4	3,300.6	0	5	3,660.1
	Hazard rate + cosine	2	0	3,311.3	2	0	3,738.1
Grouped (5 equal)	Half normal + cosine*	1	2	820.3	1	2	644.6
	Half normal + Hermite	1	0	896.4	1	0	700.1
	Uniform + cosine	0	4	823.2	0	2	789.7
	Hazard rate + cosine	2	0	827.2	2	0	650.8
Grouped (8 equal)	Half normal + cosine	1	4	1,048.2	1	4	848.1
	Half normal + Hermite	1	0	1,204.6	1	0	934.9
	Uniform + cosine	0	5	1,061.7	0	5	888.5
	Hazard rate + cosine*	2	0	1,038.4	2	0	864.8

The data filter with 5 equal cutpoints and truncation at 40 meters had cutpoints away from favored numbers (Buckland et al. 2001; Thomas et al. 2010); therefore, it appears better suited to my dataset given the strong evidence for heaping. Of the models tested for this data filter, the half-normal key model with cosine adjustments had the lowest AIC score (Table 2.1).

Table 2.2. Summary of the estimated density (D) and the coefficient of variation (cv) for two truncation values (w). The data were analyzed ungrouped and with two different groupings: five intervals of equal widths with cutpoints away from favored values, and eight intervals of equal widths. For each data type, an asterisk indicates the model with the smallest AIC score. Models that failed are indicated by “n.a.”

Data type	Model (Key + adjustment)	Truncation			
		$w = 40 \text{ m}$		$w = \text{largest distance}$	
		D	$cv \text{ (\%)}$	D	$cv \text{ (\%)}$
Ungrouped	Half normal + cosine	1107.9	14%	703.1	11%
	Half normal + Hermite	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Uniform + cosine*	880.8	12%	410.0	49,069%
	Hazard rate + cosine	23,071.2	19%	14,654.2	2,095,096%
Grouped (5 equal)	Half normal + cosine*	954.7	13%	553.9	10%
	Half normal + Hermite	401.1	9%	313.0	9%
	Uniform + cosine	889.8	15%	163.7	8%
	Hazard rate + cosine	2,329.3	75%	428.0	13%
Grouped (8 equal)	Half normal + cosine	1,940.6	12%	850.2	11%
	Half normal + Hermite	452.9	9%	315.7	8%
	Uniform + cosine	1,372.2	11%	468.9	9%
	Hazard rate + cosine *	9,214.3	102%	792.2	20%

The P values associated with the X^2 goodness-of-fit tests were highly significant across models for this data filter, but three orders of magnitude lower for the half-normal key model with cosine adjustments ($X^2 = 5.14$, d.o.f = 1, $P = 0.023$). The quantile-quantile plot (Fig. 2.4) revealed poor fit near to zero, such that more empirical detections were made than predicted by the model. Heaping was also apparent in the quantile-quantile plot.

Based on the data filter with 5 equal cutpoints away from favored numbers and truncation at 40 meters, and the half-normal model with cosine adjustments, the probability of detection (mean \pm SE) is 0.105 ± 0.012 (CI: 0.084, 0.131) within 40 m, the density is 955 ± 122 (CI: 743,1227), and global abundance is $314,100 \pm 40,267$ (CI: 244,380, 403,700) within the 329 km² survey area. The detection function and the probability of detection plotted over histograms of the data are given in Fig. 2.3C & D, respectively.

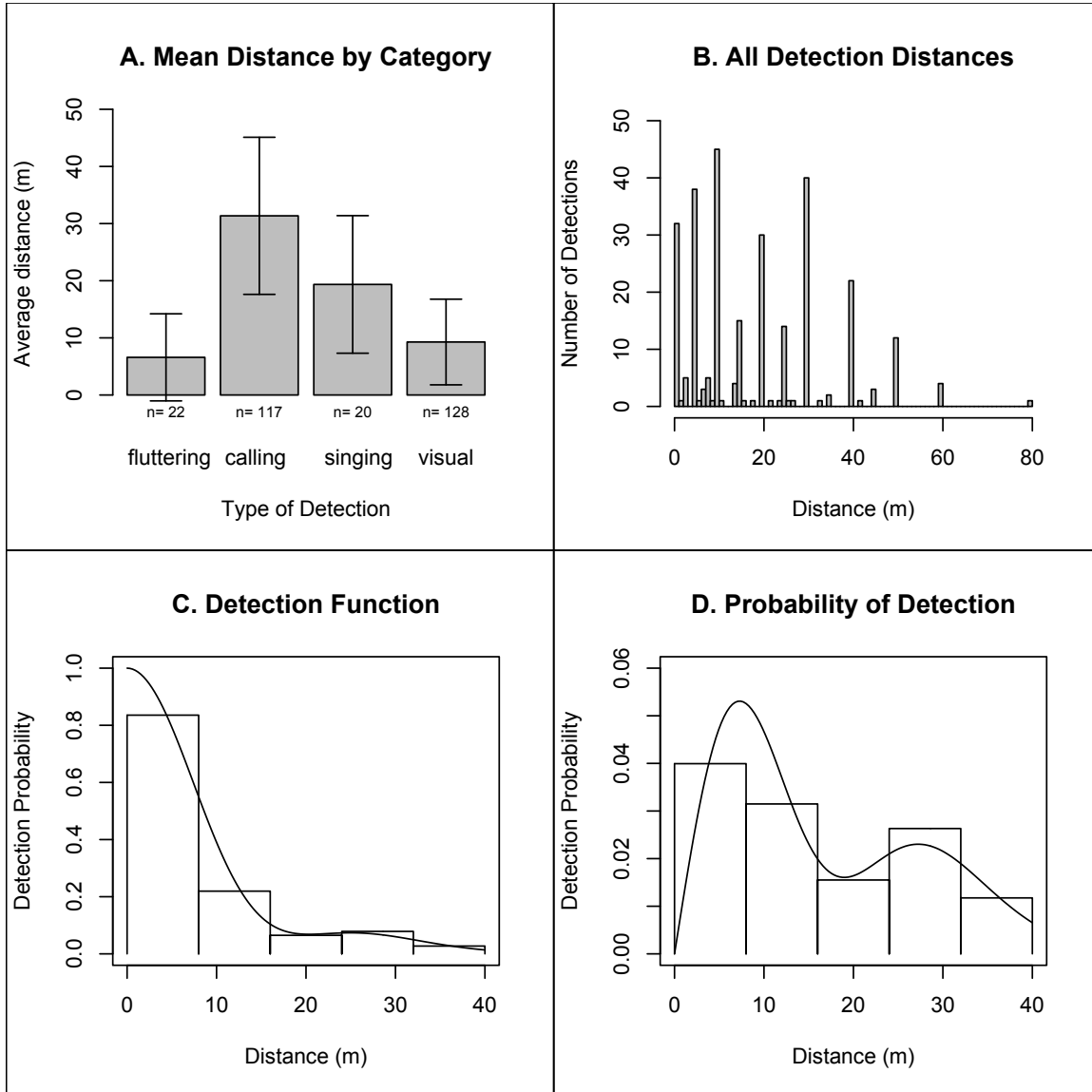


Fig. 2.3 A. Mean distance to the black-billed streamertail in four detection categories: fluttering, calling, singing, and visual. Number (n) of detections in each category is given. B. Histogram of ungrouped distance data. Tendency to round to favored distances (i.e. heaping) is apparent, as is spiking near to zero. Some evidence for over-dispersion to mid-range distances is also apparent. C. Detection function fitted to data using a half normal key model plus cosine adjustments. D. Probability of detection (PDF).

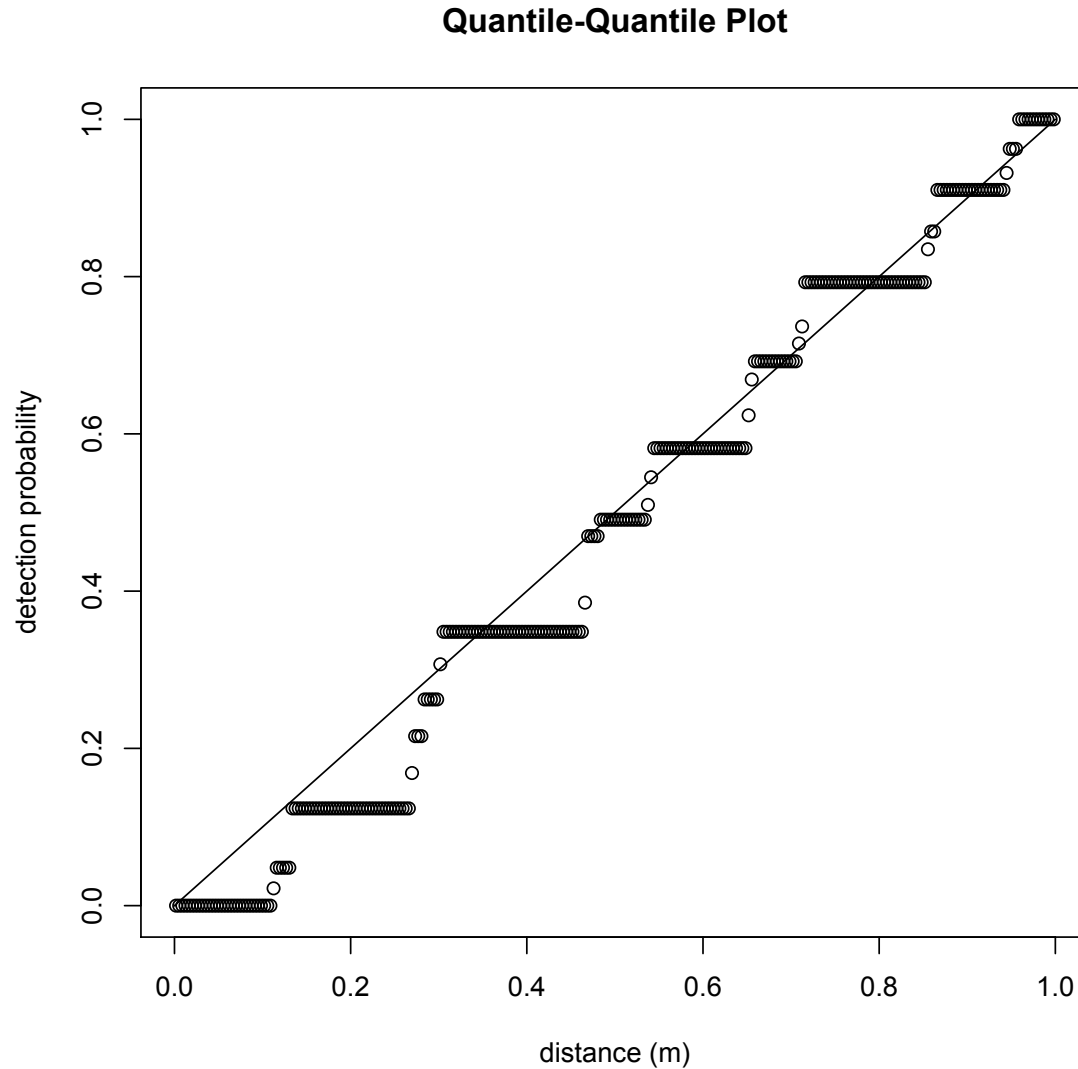


Fig. 2.4. Quantile-quantile plot corresponding to the fit of a half normal detection function model with cosine adjustments. “Stepped” appearance relates to heaping at favored distances, and more detections than expected near $g(0)$ suggests poor model fit.

Variable Circular Plot

Following the methods in Reynolds et al. (1980), I summarized detections by 5 m bands around the points. The inflection point occurred at 10 m (Fig. 2.5). Because of the issue with spiking, I conservatively set the effective census radius to 20 m, leaving a total of 187 individuals at 145 points with radius 20 m, or 1,026 individuals/km² of occupied

habitat. Given an occupancy rate of 32%, the calculation for abundance is 108,017 individuals within the 329 km² survey region.

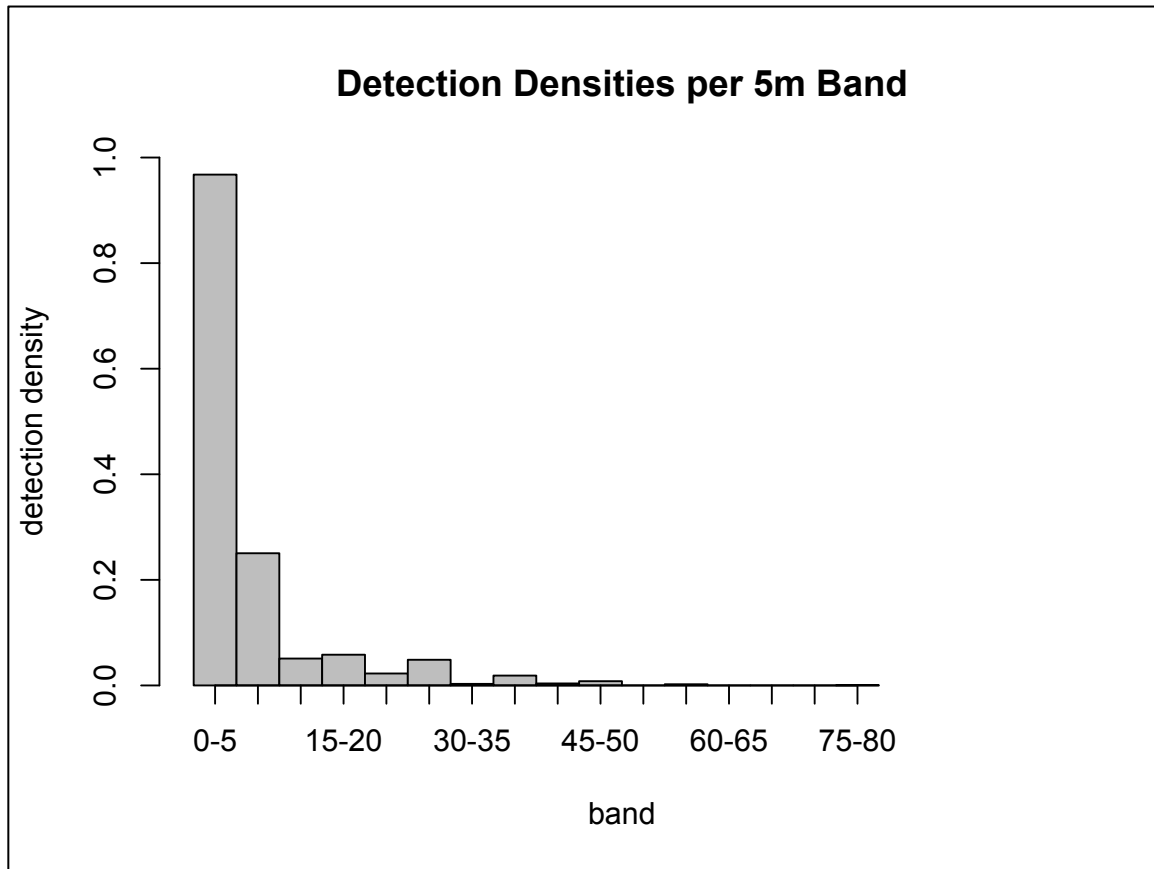


Fig. 2.5. Detection densities for each five-meter band away from points. The inflection point of Reynolds (1980) occurs at ten meters.

DISCUSSION

In the current study, the black-billed streamertail density estimated by distance sampling (955 individuals per km²) and the variable circular plot method (1,026 individuals per km²) are roughly two orders of magnitude higher than the 3–6 pair per km² estimated by Schuchmann (1999). The difference could reflect population growth, seasonal effects, survey method, or any combination of these three factors. Black-billed streamertail occurrence in habitats such as gardens and churchyards suggests that they adapt well to

human modifications of the landscape, and their populations may actually be increasing in low- and mid-elevations where agriculture and urban areas are expansive. The ability of the red-billed streamertail to feed on a wide variety of introduced nectar sources such as *Syzygium jambos* and *Spathodea campanulata* was noted by (Lack 1976). Throughout the survey period, I frequently witnessed the black-billed streamertail feeding on these and other introduced plants. Hence, human activities, in some cases, may serve to increase habitat quality for the black-billed streamertail by increasing the availability of nectar sources.

It is perhaps surprising that any land bird population on Jamaica or elsewhere in the Caribbean could thrive given the frequency and severity of hurricanes to occur there. Documented declines of several Caribbean bird species have occurred as result of hurricanes and major storms (Raffaele 1977; Jeggo and Taynton 1980; Smith and Temple 1982; but see Varty 1991). However, Hurricane Gilbert, which devastated parts of Jamaica in 1988, did not cause drastic population declines for several species of land birds surveyed, at least in the short- to immediate-term (Varty 1991). Wunderle et al. (1992) compared population densities of land birds on Jamaica before and after the hurricane, and showed that nectivorous and frugivorous bird populations (including the red-billed streamertail) had sharper declines in local density after Hurricane Gilbert (1988) than did insectivorous bird populations (Wunderle et al. 1992). However, the general pattern among localities was idiosyncratic: mean number of birds declined in two montane habitats, but increased in two lowland sites, and stayed the same in the remaining five lowland sites (Wunderle et al. 1992). Movement, rather than mortality, may have caused the majority of the change in local abundance. Black-billed streamertail

populations might be resilient to the adverse effects of hurricanes if they are able to move away from areas of heavy defoliation to avoid starvation. Given their high vagility and generalist foraging strategy (feeding on a wide variety of plants), this is likely to be the case. Post hurricane observations of the black-billed streamertail in neighboring St. Andrew Parish (or approximately 20 - 25 km west of the known distribution) suggest they were either blown or flew out of their typical range in order to find nectar (Gosse Bird Club 1988, 1989). However, more studies are needed to better understand the impacts of human activity and natural disturbances on the black-billed streamertail densities in different habitats.

The reliability of density and abundance estimates obtained with conventional distance sampling methods depends heavily on whether or not the data meet four key assumptions. First, distance modeling assumes that birds on the point are certain to be detected. Failure to detect all birds at zero distance from the point will result in a negative bias in the estimate of density and abundance (Buckland et al. 2001, 2008). The montane wet forests of the John Crow and Blue Mountains, like all tropical forests, have a complex vertical structure and low light levels. Both sexes can be fairly camouflaged against a green background in low light conditions. The inconspicuously plumed females can be especially difficult to detect. Therefore, I cannot rule out the possibility that some birds at zero distance from the point were missed.

Second, objects must be detected at their initial location. The mathematical theory underlying distance sampling assumes that random movement of objects does not occur. In reality, all birds move, which creates a bias because the probability of detection is a non-increasing function of distance from the point. Objects moving at random are more

likely to be detected when moving closer to the point, leading to an underestimate of distance and a positive bias in density estimation. In point counts, where the observer is stationary, overestimation due to random movement is especially problematic (Buckland et al. 2001). Some published studies have shown that density estimates can be inflated by as much as a factor of ten due to these random effects (Bibby et al. 2000). A snapshot approach, in which distance to detected birds are measured in a snapshot moment (Buckland et al. 2001, Buckland 2006, Buckland et al. 2008), may help mitigate the positive bias caused by random and responsive movement during the counting period. This approach may prove effective for future surveys of the black-billed streamertail.

Movement of objects can also be non-random in response to the observer. Response to the observer may take the form of movement toward or away from the observer. Responsive movement away from the observer would lead to underestimation of density, whereas movement toward to the observer would lead to overestimation of density (Bibby et al. 2000, Buckland 2006, Thomas et al. 2010). The black-billed streamertail did not tend to exhibit highly evasive behavior, such as flushing. For example, in most cases, individuals that were singing continued to sing, foraging birds continued to feed, and dominant individuals appeared to be completely consumed with chasing away competitors, thus paying the observers scant attention. For the current study, bias arising from evasive movement might be small, though bias arising from random movement may be large.

The third assumption of distance modeling is that distances to detected individuals are precisely measured (Buckland et al. 2001, Buckland 2006, Buckland et al. 2008, Thomas et al. 2010). If distances were underestimated by 10%, then densities

would be overestimated by $100 * (1/0.9^2 - 1) = 23\%$; if distances were overestimated by 10%, then densities would be underestimated by $100 * (1 - 1/1.1^2) = 17\%$ (Buckland et al. 2001). In the current study, the use of a laser range finder increased the precision of distance estimates to visually detected objects. However, distance estimates for aural detections can only be approximated. Breeding bird surveys conducted in forest habitats can have up to 90% aural detections (Reynolds et al. 1980, Bibby et al. 2000). Somewhat surprisingly, only 55% percent of black-billed streamertail detections were aural, thereby limiting impact of biased estimation relative to surveys for which there are higher percentages of aural detections. However, biased estimation could still be an issue for this survey. Examining the histogram of detection distances (Fig. 2.3 B), there appears to be some signal for over-dispersion, and the probability density function (Fig. 2.3 D) tries to fit a smaller peak at around 30 m. Given that hummingbirds do not typically flush, this pattern could be the result of imprecise distance measurements, or an artifact caused by spiking.

Finally, the sampled plots must be representative of the entire region. Generally speaking, surveys conducted along roads and paths constitute a poor survey design and may bias survey data (Marques et al. 2007; but see Rivera-Milán et al. 2015 for an exception). I surveyed primarily along roads and community footpaths rather than using a randomized survey design or grid. If Otaheite Apple (*Syzgium malaccense*), hibiscus (*Hibiscus rosa-sinensis*), “Grow stick” (*Gliricidia sepium*), and other major nectar sources are planted preferentially along roads, then streamertail density may be higher along roads than non-roads and would produce an upward bias in population estimate. Apart from planted nectar sources, the openness of human-modified forests, housing, or

agricultural areas might represent a structural advantage for this species. Schuchmann (1999) notes that densities of streamertail hummingbirds are lower in extremely thick vegetation. In reality, there is no way to avoid this potential source of bias because of the logistical constraints and the difficult terrain.

Mischaracterization of the larger region can also occur if census points are clustered too tightly together, which can lead to counting the same individuals across multiple census points. While counting the same bird across multiple survey points does not violate the assumptions of distance sampling *per se*, tight clustering can limit the survey's ability to detect variation in density across the larger region. By spacing the survey points at least 200 m apart, I minimized this source of bias. Because I was driving between census points for most of the survey (approximately 90%), instances of double counting are likely rare. Overall, the survey points were well spaced throughout the larger region (excluding inaccessible areas; Fig. 2.2).

The 'spike' in the black-billed streamertail data can indicate a failure of model assumptions or a real biological feature (Thomas et al. 2010). Only adult males produce the fluttering noise in flight. Therefore, some spiking may have occurred because there are more ways to aurally detect adult males at small distances from the point. Spiking can also arise if animals move toward the observer, though, as discussed above, the black-billed streamertail does not tend to display responsive behavior. Finally, rounding errors at small distances can also cause a spike in the data.

The fact that the density estimated using the variable circular plot method (1,026 individuals per km²) is similar to the density estimated using these distance methods is problematic because the density for the variable circular plot method is based on

occupied points only, while the density for the distance methods estimate is based on both occupied and unoccupied points. This fact, together with the issues listed below for model fit (spiking, rounding, etc.), suggests that the distance sampling analysis may have a positive bias, and the results should be interpreted with caution. The smaller estimate of total abundance using the variable circular plot, which is adjusted for occupancy rate (108,017 individuals), may be more realistic.

CONCLUSIONS

The global estimate for black-billed streamertail abundance under both the variable circular plot method (108,017 individuals) and distance methods (mean \pm SE, $314,100 \pm 35,427$ (CI: 251,720 - 391,930)) support the current IUCN status of Least Concern v 3.1. The more conservative global abundance estimate of 108,017 individuals (variable circular plot method) may be more reliable due to the potential overestimation of abundance in the distance sampling analysis. Ongoing monitoring of black-billed streamertail is recommended to better understand population trends, habitat preferences, and the impact of human and natural disturbance events.

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CHAPTER 3.

MORPHOLOGICAL AND GENETIC CHARACTERIZATION OF THE HYBRID ZONE BETWEEN JAMAICAN-ENDEMIC STREAMERTAIL HUMMINGBIRDS (*TROCHILUS POLYTMUS* AND *T. SCITULUS*)

INTRODUCTION

Some of the most dramatic examples of avian radiations occur in ocean archipelagos where oceanic barriers to dispersal and small population sizes facilitate divergence between populations on different islands. In contrast, few examples of avian speciation occur *in situ* due to their limited geographic area. A survey of avian sister species inhabiting oceanic islands and small archipelagos failed to detect a single case that could not be explained by secondary invasions or inter-island allopatric speciation (Coyne and Price 2000). For example, the spectacular radiations of Hawaiian honeycreepers and Darwin's finches are thought to have arisen through multiple instances of allopatric speciation on different islands followed by secondary colonization.

The distinctive hummingbird genus *Trochilus*, which is represented exclusively by two sexually dichromatic taxa endemic to the oceanic island of Jamaica, has long represented a possible exception to the rule that *in situ* speciation on small oceanic islands does not occur in birds (Coyne and Price 2000). At approximately 11,400 km², Jamaica is the smallest oceanic island in the Western Hemisphere. While they possess a long shared history on Jamaica, a phylogenetic analysis of all hummingbirds based on the mitochondrion and several nuclear loci revealed only shallow divergence between them (McGuire et al. 2014). Yet they are distinguished by male bill color (Brewster and Bangs 1901), a secondary sexual ornament, which is coral red in the red-billed streamertail (*Trochilus polytmus*), and jet black in the black-billed streamertail (*T. scitulus*). The bill

of *T. polytmus* is also wider than in *T. scitulus* (Brewster and Bangs 1901; Graves 2015). The redness of the bill does not appear to be a pigment because it fades rapidly post mortem. More likely, the red color is due to the presence of heavily vascularized tissue that is visible on the portions of the bill lacking melanin. More subtle differences in bill length, tail length, and degree of tail forking have been documented (Graves 2015), as have some differences in song and courtship displays (Schuchmann 1978, 1980). Both taxa have what appears to be a year-round lek mating system (Gosse 1847), with males performing displays that emphasize their bill color, the dramatically elongated second to outermost tail feathers, and horned crown feathers (Gill et al. 1973; Schuchmann 1978, 1980).

Hybrids were first documented nearly 70 years ago, and a narrow hybrid zone was discovered where their parapatric ranges meet along the northern side of the island (reviewed in Graves 2015). The geographic extent of the hybrid zone was mapped by Gill et al. (1973) nearly 50 years ago. The hybrid zone appears to be centered on the Rio Grande Valley (Gill et al. 1973, Graves 2015). Since then, survey and collection efforts indicate that hybrid zone has not moved or widened significantly during this half century (MacColl and Lewis 2000, Graves 2009a, 2009b, 2015, Judy 2018). Along the southern end of the island, the contact zone is found along the Morant River, but no hybrid zone occurs there (Gill et al. 1973).

Hybrid zones, where genetically divergent forms meet and mate (Harrison 1993), are natural laboratories to study evolution (Hewitt 1988). Careful examination of patterns of morphological and genetic variation across a hybrid zone can shed light on the selective forces maintaining it (Barton and Hewitt 1985; Hewitt 1988). Clines can be

dispersal-independent for sedentary organisms (Moore 1977), or dispersal-dependent for vagile organisms where the homogenizing effect of dispersal is balanced by spatial heterogeneity (Barton and Hewitt 1985). Dispersal-dependent clines have three categories (Barton and Hewitt 1985; Hewitt 1988): 1) neutral clines where initially steep gradients decay with time in the absence of selection against hybridization, 2) waves of advance of an advantageous allele from one species into another (Ferris et al. 1983), and 3) equilibrium zones termed ‘tension zones’ (Key 1968) that are maintained by a balance between selection against hybrids and the dispersal of parental types into the zone (Haldane 1948; Barton 1979). Care must be taken to distinguish among these models to make correct inference about selection, because they can produce the same clinal patterns.

Cline theory provides a conceptual and statistical framework for comparing geographic cline shapes and positions for individual traits in order to distinguish among cline models and make inferences regarding selection (Barton 1979; Barton and Hewitt 1989; Harrison 1993). For instance, traits that do not introgress freely are expected to have narrow clines relative to traits that do (Barton 1979; Szymura and Barton 1986). Cline centers should coincide with the approximate geographic location for the majority of traits examined. However, the cline center for an individual trait can be shifted as a result of genetic drift, positive selection, or artificially, through allele dominance relationships or gene interactions (Butlin 1994, Brumfield et al. 2001, Baldassarre et al. 2014). For independently assorting loci, varying cline widths reflect the relative strength of selection acting against the locus in hybrids (Butlin et al. 1991).

Here, I used a large series of *Trochilus* specimens ($n = 201$) to characterize the morphological and genetic structure of the hybrid zone. My specific goals are (i) to characterize variation within and between species in two bill traits (color and width) and body size, (ii) determine whether the two species form discrete genomic clusters based on genotypes of six microsatellite loci and 6,451 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), and (iii) generate cline models for morphological and genetic traits that show strong differences between species. I expect steeper clines to be associated with stronger divergent selection, and wider clines to be associated with weaker selection.

METHODS

Sample collection

All voucher specimens and tissues used in this study (Table S3.1) were collected under permits issued by Jamaica's National Environment and Planning Agency (NEPA), Kingston. From November 2003 to March 2006, GRG netted 171 *Trochilus* individuals along a west-to-east transect spanning the transition from pure red-billed *T. polytmus* to pure black-billed *T. scitulus* (Fig. 3.1).

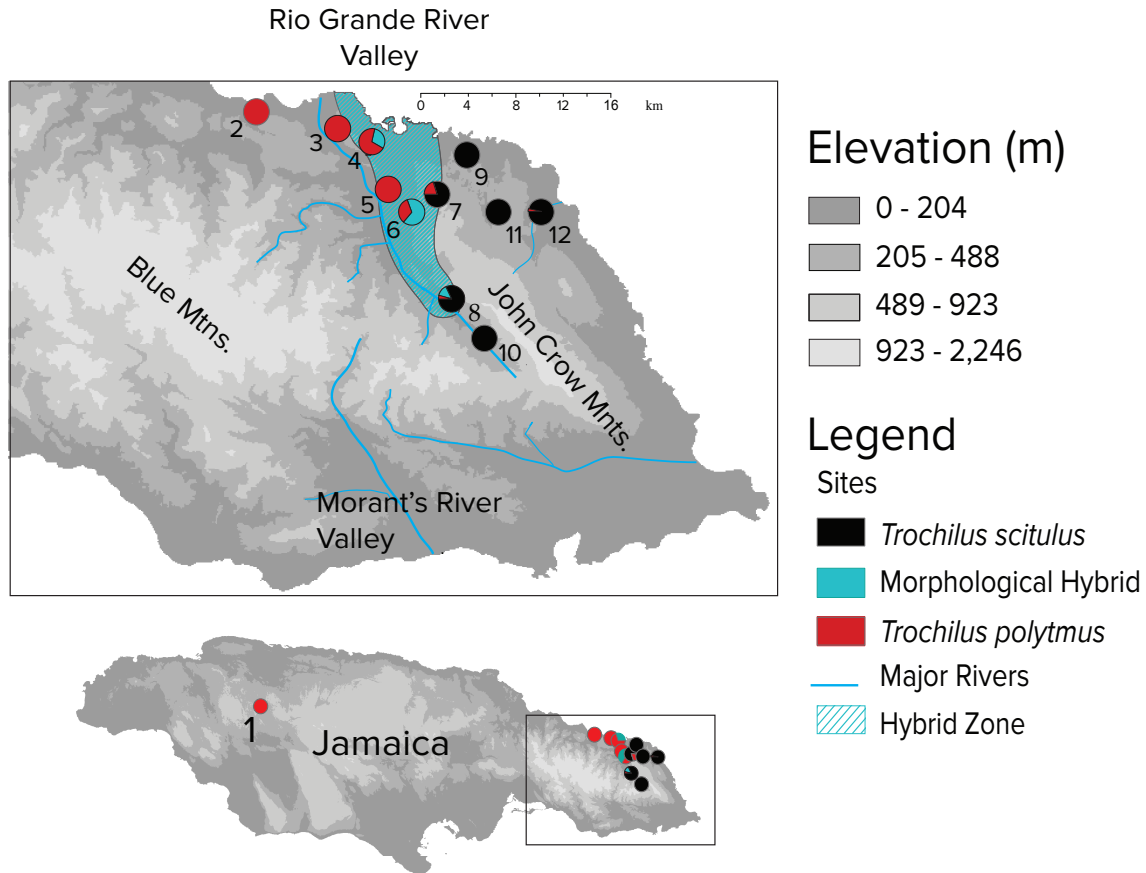


Fig. 3.1. Sites 1-12 across Jamaica, West Indies. The hybrid zone indicated by the teal shaded region overlaps with the Rio Grande Valley in Eastern Jamaica. See inset map for Site 1.

Freshly euthanized birds were weighed using a digital scale, and two separate digital photographs of the bill in dorsal aspect were taken. Additionally, details were recorded for each specimen regarding the time and place of collection, sex, age, plumage and soft part coloration, breeding condition, and type of tissues preserved. In December 2014, I netted an additional 26 *Trochilus* individuals along the same transect using the same protocol. Specimens are deposited in the research collection of the U. S. National Museum of Natural History (NMNH) Smithsonian Institution, in Washington D.C., the

Louisiana State University Museum of Natural Science (LSUMNS) in Baton Rouge, LA, or the Institute of Jamaica (IOJ) in Kingston, Jamaica.

Phenotypic measurements

Bill color

I measured bill color using photographs of living or freshly euthanized individuals (see methods in Graves 2009a, 2015). Briefly, individuals were placed in dorsal aspect next to a millimeter scale, and were visually assessed to determine the extent of black on the dorsal surface of the maxilla. Various hybrid indices have been developed to describe bill color in *Trochilus* (Brewster and Bangs 1901; Gill et al. 1973; Graves 2009a, 2015). I use a five-category index devised by Graves (2015), which yields repeatable classification from photographs. For males, category 1 corresponds to entirely black bills, and category 5 corresponds to bills that are bright red and narrowly tipped in black. The hybrid index for females is similar, though female *T. polytmus* have duller bills than males. For both sexes, birds scored as 2-3 were defined as hybrids (Fig. S3.1).

I tested for interspecific differences in bill color using reference sample sites (Table 3.1). I excluded from these tests two *T. polytmus* individuals (MLB 369 and MLB 372) that were netted at Site 12 (discussed below). I used a nonparametric Wilcoxon rank sum test to compare bill color, a quantitative discrete character defined by the hybrid index. Because the hybrid indices used for males and females were derived independently and cannot be directly compared (i.e. a female “4” is inherently different than a male “4”), I did not make intra-specific comparisons, but focused instead on interspecific comparisons between male *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus*, and between female *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus*.

Site No.	Locality Name	Distance from Site 1 (km)	North	West	<i>n</i>	Type of locality	Bill width (mean)	Bill width (S.D.)	Hybrid index (mean)	Hybrid index (S.D.)
1	Windsor	0.0	18.34	-77.67	16	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4.71	0.39	4.18	0.39
2	Somerset	119.2	18.20	-76.55	5	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4.38	0.29	4.88	0.35
3	Burlington	125.5	18.18	-76.50	10	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4.43	0.12	4.50	0.52
4	Springbank	128.2	18.18	-76.47	10	hybrid zone	4.33	0.08	4.71	0.49
5	Fellowship	130.1	18.14	-76.46	5	hybrid zone	4.32	0.16	4.44	0.73
6	Tom's Hope	132.1	18.13	-76.44	10	hybrid zone	4.10	0.22	2.53	1.37
7	Trowel Hill	133.8	18.13	-76.43	10	hybrid zone	4.01	0.25	1.41	1.18
8	Comfort Castle	136.7	18.05	-76.41	28	hybrid zone	3.99	0.19	1.61	1.17
9	Nonsuch	135.2	18.16	-76.41	14	<i>T. scitulus</i>	3.93	0.10	1.00	0.00
10	Millbank	139.9	18.03	-76.39	7	ref. <i>T. scitulus</i>	3.79	0.18	1.00	0.00
11	Cambridge Barracks	138.2	18.12	-76.38	3	ref. <i>T. scitulus</i>	3.88	0.18	1.00	0.00
12	Ecclesdown	143.2	18.10	-76.34	12	ref. <i>T. scitulus</i>	3.86	0.36	1.33	0.90

Table 3.1. Site information including site number, locality name, the linear distance from Site 1 in kilometers, the geographic coordinates in decimal degrees, the number of sampled individuals (*n*), the type of locality as defined for analysis (ref. = reference, or hybrid zone), mean and standard deviation (S.D.) for bill width in millimeters, and the mean and standard deviation for hybrid index. Fig. 3.1. Sites 1-12 across Jamaica, West Indies. The hybrid zone indicated by the teal shaded region overlaps with the Rio Grande Valley in Eastern Jamaica. See inset map for Site 1.

Bill width

I assessed bill width from digital photographs (see methods in Graves 2009a, 2015). Briefly, bill width was measured to the nearest 0.01 mm at the anterior extension of feathers on the dorsal surface of the mandible from enlarged images (30X) on all specimens collected by GRG. I measured all specimens collected in 2014 following methods in Graves (2009a, 2015) but used digital landmarks in the program TPSDig v. 2.05 (Rohlf, 2016). The use of digital photographs on living or freshly euthanized birds circumvents distortion issues that arise during specimen preparation and the process of drying itself (Graves 2015). Bill distortion can be especially pronounced in hummingbirds because the ventral bar of the maxilla is fragile and can flex when tied shut (Zusi 2013; Graves 2015).

I made two independent measurements of bill width, one from each of the two photographs for each bird. I report the average of the two measurements for bill width for each adult individual (i.e. those lacking obvious bill striations) for which bill width measurements were available (Table S3.1). I tested for intra- and interspecific differences in bill width using reference sites (Table 3.1). I excluded from these tests the two *T. polytmus* individuals that were netted within the *T. scitulus* reference sites. Individuals were divided into four groups: *T. polytmus* males, *T. polytmus* females, *T. scitulus* males, and *T. scitulus* females. To determine whether bill width trait data met the assumptions for a one-way ANOVA, I tested for normality using a Shapiro-Wilk test and homogeneity of variance using a modified Levene Test based on the absolute deviations from the trimmed mean with a correction factor. No significant departures from normality or deviations from homogeneity of variance were detected.

Body size

I examined size variation of three skeletal elements: sternum length, keel length, and keel depth, to explore potential body size differences between species, and sexual size dimorphism within species. Direct measures of body mass on live or freshly euthanized birds can be heavily biased by gut contents (Graves 2009b, 2015). This bias can be significant in small birds like hummingbirds, making it difficult to assess minute differences between similarly sized species. GRG measured the specimens collected in 2003 – 2006, and I measured the specimens collected in 2014. Additionally, I measured five specimens previously measured by GRG to assess the inter-observer measurement error. I used all specimens for which skeletal elements were available, excluding hybrids and individuals with noted bill striations, an indicator of juvenile status (Ortiz-Crespo 1972). Prior to performing an ANOVA, I tested for normality using a Shapiro-Wilk test. I tested for homogeneity of variance using a modified Levene Test based on the absolute deviations from the median with no correction factor.

Molecular methods

Microsatellites

Fragment length differences were determined in nuclear microsatellite loci for 172 individuals across 12 sample localities using nine *Trochilus*-specific autosomal microsatellite markers (Lance et al. 2009). One primer from each pair was modified on the 5' end with an engineered sequence (M13) to enable use of a third primer in the PCR (identical to the M13 tag) that was fluorescently labeled for detection. PCR amplification of fragments were multiplexed in a 10 µL reaction volume (0.01 µM forward primer, 0.22 µM reverse primer, 0.02 dye-labeled universal primer, 10 mg/mL BSA, 5 units Qiagen

Multiplex Mix, and 20 ng DNA template) using a Peltier Thermal Cycler 200 DNA Engine Cycler with the following cycling parameters: initial denaturation at 95° for 15 min, 24 cycles of 95° for 30 s, 59° for 90 s, and 72° for 60 s, followed by 19 cycles of 94° for 30 s, 72° for 90 s, and 72° for 60 s, and a final extension at 60° for 30 min. PCR products were resolved on an Applied Biosystems (AB) 3100 capillary sequencer and scored by size using GeneMapper (AB) software version 4.01.

Genotyping-by-sequencing

DNA extracts for 160 *Trochilus* individuals were sent to Cornell Institute of Genomic Diversity (IGD) to generate a genome-wide SNP dataset following the genotyping-by-sequencing method (Elshire et al. 2011). Briefly, DNA from each individual was digested with PstI (CTGCAG). Sample-specific adapters and common adapters were ligated to the resulting fragments. Fragments were then pooled and cleaned using a QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) and amplified using an 18-cycle PCR. The amplified libraries were purified using QIAquick columns and quantified using a PicoGreen assay (Molecular Probes, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Final library products were sequenced as single-end reads to 100-base pairs on an Illumina HiSeq 2000 lane (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

SNP calling was performed using UNEAK, a reference-free SNP calling pipeline specific to GBS data that is an extension of the Java program TASSEL (Bradbury et al. 2007). We chose the UNEAK pipeline because it calls nearly as many SNPs as reference-based pipelines with high accuracy (Torkamaneh et al. 2016). UNEAK performs an initial filter to remove reads that lack either a barcode or a cut site, or has 'N's present in the first 64 bases of the sequence after the barcode. Reads that pass this initial filter are

trimmed to 64 bp (including the cut site remnant but removing the barcode). If a read contains a full cut site or part of an adapter, the read is trimmed appropriately and padded to 64 bases with polyA. Identical reads are clustered into tags, and counts of these tags per individual are stored. Then, all unique tags are merged and their counts in the whole sample of individuals are stored. Pairwise alignments of tags with a 1-bp mismatch were considered as candidate SNPs. To remove rare or singleton tags that likely result from sequencing error, the UNEAK pipeline then filters SNPs for which the minor allele was represented in fewer than five reads or has an overall frequency less than 5% in the total sample. Finally, the network filters for only reciprocal tag pairs using an error tolerance rate of 0.03 (recommended for Illumina data).

Running the initial UNEAK pipeline with the above settings yielded 97,432 SNPs. I filtered out SNPs with greater than 20% missing individuals per locus, resulting in 32,949 SNPs. Following methods in White et al. (2013), I used a custom perl script (*PairDuplicates.pl*) to filter loci that are likely reverse complements of other loci in the dataset. Finally, we used a second custom perl script (*UNEAK_filter1.pl*) to remove paralogous loci, which we defined as loci having > 0.75 mean heterozygosity. The final call set included 6,451 SNPs.

Two individuals (GRG 4137, GRG 4139) had ambiguous calls ('N's) for the majority of SNPs ($> 90\%$) and were removed from the dataset. I pruned an additional 14 individuals that were outliers in multidimensional scaling and PCA plots that potentially were biased by experimental (sequencing) errors: GRG 3949, GRG 3951, GRG 3976, GRG 3977, GRG 3986, GRG 3989, GRG 4009, GRG 4107, GRG 4115, GRG 4137,

GRG 4145, GRG 4147, GRG 4151, GRG 4159. The final dataset for all downstream analyses contained 6,451 high-quality SNPs from 145 individuals (Table S3.1).

Analysis of Molecular Data

Microsatellites

I tested all *Trochilus*-specific microsatellite loci for Hardy-Weinberg and linkage equilibrium using randomization procedures implemented in the program FSTAT 2.9.3.2 (Goudet 1995). To test for Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium, alleles were randomized within samples. Tables were classified using the F_{IS} statistic and were based on 1,000 randomizations. To test for linkage equilibrium, genotypes were permuted 360,000 times among samples. I also examined null allele frequencies using an iterative algorithm to compare observed and expected genotype frequencies, which I implemented in CERVUS 3.0 (Kalinowski et al. 2007). In the absence of a null allele, estimated frequencies are expected to be zero or slightly negative.

I quantified gene diversity, an unbiased estimator of heterozygosity (Nei 1973), for each locus-site combination. Allelic richness was also calculated by rarefaction analysis to account for uneven sample sizes across sample localities (Mousadik and Petit 1996; Petit et al. 1998). I examined differentiation among sample localities, as defined in Table S3.1, using a variant of F_{ST} , Θ (Weir and Cockerham 1984). Significant deviations from Hardy-Weinberg and linkage equilibria were evaluated via log-likelihood G tests and randomization procedures, and Bonferroni corrections were applied in cases of simultaneous multiple comparisons of the data (Goudet et al. 1996). I conducted calculations and testing (randomization procedures) using the program FSTAT vs. 2.9.3.2 (Goudet 1995). I also performed an analysis of molecular variance to independently

estimate the among- and within-sample locality components of genetic variance implemented in the program GENALEX 6 (Peakall and Smouse 2006).

I used STRUCTURE v. 2.3.4 (Pritchard et al. 2000), a Bayesian approach to modeling the number of genetic clusters (K), or populations, in the microsatellite dataset. I performed five runs at each K ($K = 1 - 4$) using a burn-in time of 100,000 followed by 1,000,000 MCMC iterations. Runs were performed under an admixture model with the alleles correlated frequencies option. These options are appropriate for populations that share polymorphisms due to migration or shared ancestry (Falush et al. 2003). Because the underlying model of structure is stochastic, individuals can be assigned to different populations among replicate runs (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007). To handle this “label switching” issue, I combined the five runs in CLUMPP using the “FullSearch” option (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007), and visualized the results using DISTRUCT (Rosenberg 2004). To determine which K is most probable for my dataset, I examined the posterior probabilities for $K = 1 - 4$.

Genotyping-by-sequencing

I used model-based and multivariate clustering approaches to estimate proportions of ancestry and visualize global patterns of population structure in the GBS dataset. I performed model-based analyses using FASTSTRUCTURE (Raj et al. 2014), which is conceptually similar to the well-known program STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al. 2000), but uses a variational Bayesian framework for posterior inference that makes it run faster with little cost of accuracy (Raj et al. 2014). This algorithm is particularly useful for large SNP datasets. I used the default simple prior and set the number of true populations (K)

to 2. The results were visualized using DISTRUCT2.2 (Vikram Chhatre, 2016: <http://www.crypticlineage.net/pages/distruct.html>).

I visualized the overall pattern of genetic variability among individuals using a principal component analysis (PCA) using the R programming package, Adegenet (Jombart 2008). In contrast to model-based approaches, multivariate approaches to clustering such as PCAs have the benefit of being able to detect genetic structure in large datasets without making assumptions about the underlying population genetic model (Jombart et al. 2010). To prepare the GBS data for multivariate testing, I scaled and centered the allelic frequencies to mean zero, and I replaced missing data with mean allele frequencies. The PCA was performed using the *dudi.pca* function and the first five axes were retained in the analysis.

To more effectively discriminate between genetic clusters seen in the PCA, I performed a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC; Jombart et al. 2010). The DAPC yields synthetic variables of alleles that maximize the among-group variance and minimizes within-group variance (Jombart et al. 2010). The DAPC requires a PCA as a prior step, which transforms the data so that variables are uncorrelated and their numbers are less than that of the analyzed individuals, two key assumptions of a discriminant analysis (Jombart et al. 2010). Here, I tested *a priori* groups defined as *T. polytmus* (hybrid index = 4, 5), *T. scitulus*, (hybrid index = 1), and hybrids (hybrid index = 2, 3).

Retaining too many principal components in the PCA step results in over-fitting, but retaining too few results in insufficient power to discriminate the true biological structures. I used a formal optimization procedure now included in Adegenet (see R

documentation for Adegnet:*xvalDAPC*) to guide my selection of the number of PCs to retain. This “cross-validation” procedure divides the data into a training set (90% of the data) and a validation set (the remaining 10% of the data). The DAPC is conducted on the training set, with variable numbers of PCs retained, and the degree to which the analysis correctly predicts group membership of validation set individuals forms the basis for the optimization. At each level of PC retention, the sampling and DAPC are repeated a user-defined number of times. Cross-validation performed on the *Trochilus* GBS dataset using 30 repetitions showed that the lowest root mean square error was associated with 30 of 144 retained principal components (Fig. S3.6).

I examined the variable contributions (loadings) to the first discriminant function in the DAPC to identify informative SNPs for distinguishing the *Trochilus* species and their hybrids. I define 46 alleles (23 SNP loci) with loadings above 0.001, an arbitrary threshold, to be informative for species discrimination (Fig. S3.7). I calculated allele frequencies differences in parental reference sites for each informative SNP using *Adegnet*.

I used a Bayesian clustering analysis in STRUCTURE (Pritchard et al. 2000) on this informative subset of SNPs under an admixture model with the alleles correlated option. I performed five different runs setting $K = 2$ and used 100,000 reps as burnin and 1,000,000 MCMC repetitions. Convergence of key parameters (α , F^{ST}) was assessed by visually inspecting plots of the traces for each parameter. Results were visualized using CLUMPAK (Kopelman et al. 2015), a tool that combines functionality of CLUMPP (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007) and DISTRICT (Rosenberg 2004) into a single step.

Geographic Cline Analysis

Phenotypic Traits

I fit bill color and bill width measurements to five equilibrium trait geographic cline models (sexes separate) using the Metropolis-Hastings Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) algorithm implemented in HZAR (Derryberry et al. 2014). All five models estimate trait variance (center), cline center (distance from site 1, c), and cline width ($1 / \text{maximum slope}, w$). Models vary with respect to how the exponential tails are fitted: none (no tails fit), both (two tails with independent parameters), mirror (two tails mirrored about the cline center), left (only one fitted tail on the left side of the cline), and right (only one fitted tail on the right side of the cline) (Derryberry et al. 2014). The models were specified in the following manner:

- a. fixed, none, model I
- b. fixed, both, model II
- c. fixed, mirror, model III
- d. fixed, left, model IV
- e. fixed, right, model V

I compared models using Akaike information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc), and considered the model with the lowest AICc as the best-fitting model (Akaike 1973) to allow for comparison among models. HZAR requires that data be collected along a one-dimensional transect (Derryberry et al. 2014). I set the geographic position of each site (1-12) as the centroid (i.e. average) latitudinal and longitudinal coordinates among individuals (sexes pooled) collected at that site. I set the geographic position of each site (1-12) as the centroid (i.e. mean) latitudinal and longitudinal coordinates among

individuals (sexes pooled). I used the westernmost sample locality (Site 1) as the anchor for the analyses, and the geographic positions of the other sample localities were transformed into a list of Euclidean distances from the western anchor using the HZAR functions “hzar.map.latLongSites” and “hzar.map.distanceFromSite.” Placing the anchor further south or north of the centroid position did not have a large effect on estimated cline parameters (Fig. S3.8 A-C, Table S3.2).

I fixed trait mean and variance (μ_L , μ_R , var_L , and var_R) to reference sample locality mean and variance values. I limited the amount of geographic space explored by the MCMC (-30, 180 km). Because of the large number of free variables for model II ($n = 7$), I reduced the tune parameter from 1.5 to 1.2. MCMC chains were set to 100,000 with a burnin of 10,000. Convergence was assessed by visually inspecting the MCMC traces for each parameter. I considered the model with the lowest AICc score as the best-fitting model. To compare among parameter estimates for different traits, I considered estimates that have non-overlapping confidence intervals to be significantly different, following methods in (Ruegg 2008).

Genetic Admixture

I fit a single cline (sexes pooled) to admixture assignments based on the STRUCTURE analysis of informative SNPs ($n = 23$). Because these assignments are continuous and numerical in nature, I used the same five quantitative trait models used for the bill color and bill width measurements. I used the same settings for geographic space explored (-30, 180 km), tune parameters (1.2 for Model II), and length of MCMC chains (100,000 discarding 10,000 as burnin). As for the bill color and width clines, I checked convergence by visually assessing the traces for individual parameters, and I

performed model selection by considering the model with the lowest AICc score as the best-fitting model.

Neutral Expectations

I used Endler's neutral diffusion equation (1977) to calculate neutral expectations for cline widths.

$$T = .35 (w/d)^2$$

Where T = time since contact, w is cline width ($1/\text{max slope}$), and d = dispersal distance (standard deviation of parent - offspring distances). Natal dispersal distances are not well known in hummingbirds. However, they are generally strong flyers. Daily movements can often be nearly one kilometer or even larger for some hummingbird species (Gary Stiles, pers. comm.) Dispersal distances for hummingbirds may be dozens of times larger than their daily movements, similar to other land bird (Eric Johnson, pers. comm.). Paradis et al. (1998) report 14 km natal dispersal for the barn swallow, *Hirundo rustica*. I calculated Endler's equation using a range of dispersal distances smaller than, equal to, and greater than the known distance for barn swallow: 1 km, 14 km, and 50 km.

RESULTS

Phenotypic variation

The bill color index was significantly different between male *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* individuals ($X^2 = 35$, $df = 2$, $p\text{-value} < 2.51 \text{ E } -8$) and female *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* individuals ($X^2 = 22$, $df = 2$, $p\text{-value} = 1.67 \text{ E } -05$) (Table S3.3 A). The ANOVA for bill width variation was highly significant ($p\text{-value} = 2 \text{ E } -16$; Table S3.3 B). The post-hoc Tukey Test (Table S3.3 C) procedure revealed highly significant differences for several comparisons: 1) male *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* (adjusted $p\text{-value} = 0$), 2) male

and female *T. polytmus* (adjusted p -value = 1.26×10^{-6}), and 3) female *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* (adjusted p -value = 5.60×10^{-5}). No significant difference in bill width was found between male and female *T. scitulus* (adjusted p -value = 0.55).

Little evidence for observer bias was found in measurements of the three skeletal elements used in this study: sternum length, keel length, and keel depth. The percent coefficient of variation for the inter-observer treatment was similar to, or lower than, the intra-observer treatment for these three elements (Fig. S3.3). A PCA of all specimens did not reveal any structure or artificial grouping by observer (Fig. S3.4). I found no evidence for interspecific body size differences in males (p -value = 0.54) or females (p -value = 1.00). But, strong intra-specific differences in body size were detected for both species (Table S3.4).

Microsatellites

The microsatellite loci Tro21, Tro18, and Tro13 were out of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (p -value < 0.001). These same loci showed strong evidence of possessing high frequencies of null alleles ($0.20 \leq f_0 \leq 0.46$). Because the presence of null alleles can bias estimates of population differentiation, these loci were excluded from further analysis. Of the six remaining loci, Tro19 and Tro6 showed slight departures from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (p -value = 0.02, 0.04, respectively), but none showed evidence of linkage disequilibrium (p -value > 0.003, adjusted at 5% nominal level). All had low estimated frequencies of null alleles ($f_0 \leq 0.08$).

I detected 55 alleles in 171 individuals in six microsatellite loci (Tro2, Tro3, Tro5, Tro6, Tro17, Tro19) included in the study. The number of alleles per locus ranged from 6 to 18. Five alleles were private to Site 8 ($n = 38$), one allele private to sample Site 3 ($n =$

12), and one allele private to sample Site 5 ($n = 18$). Per-locus estimates of gene diversity and allelic richness were high at most sampling localities (Table S3.5). A comparison between reference *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* sites revealed that *T. polytmus* did not have higher estimates for gene diversity or allelic richness than *T. scitulus* (one-sided p -values based on 1,000 permutations $\gg 0.05$).

Tests of differentiation showed low divergence in pairwise comparisons between sites (Table 3.2). The estimate of F_{ST} over all microsatellite loci and sample localities was 0.032. While small, the F_{ST} estimate was significantly different from zero (p -value = 0.001; CI = [0.008, 0.074]). However, most pairwise F_{ST} values were statistically indistinguishable from zero. Of the 21 pairwise comparisons between the parental reference sites, only two comparisons showed weak differentiation. Site 8, which is located in the hybrid zone, showed weak differentiation with five other sites: two *T. polytmus* sites, two hybrid zone sites, and one *T. scitulus* site. The AMOVA showed that 95% of the genetic variation was within sites. Though small, the among-site component of genetic variation was significant ($\Phi_{PT} = 0.051$, $P = 0.001$; Table S3.6), but there was no obvious geographic pattern to this variation.

Consistent with the F_{ST} estimates and AMOVA, I found no detectable geographic structuring of the microsatellite data based on a Bayesian clustering analysis in STRUCTURE. The posterior probability for $K = 1$ was the least negative of all posterior probabilities for $K = 1 - 5$. The posterior probability of assignment to each genetic cluster ($K = 2$) was approximately 50% for all individuals, indicating there is no signal for genetic divergence at these loci (Fig. 3.2 A).

Table 3.2. Estimates of genetic differentiation based on 6 microsatellite loci for 171 individuals across 12 sites of *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and putative hybrids. Pairwise F_{ST} values are above the diagonal, and corresponding significance levels are below. Strict Bonferroni-corrected p -value at $\alpha = 0.05$ is .000758. NS = not significant, * = significance at the 5% nominal level.

	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4	Site 5	Site 6	Site 7	Site 8	Site 9	Site 10	Site 11	Site 12
Site 1		0.013	-0.001	0.004	0.010	-0.006	0.005	0.036	0.045	0.040	0.063	-0.011
Site 2	NS		0.000	0.039	-0.008	0.011	0.017	0.038	0.041	0.026	0.089	0.020
Site 3	NS	NS		0.009	0.016	0.004	0.007	0.038	0.026	0.029	0.084	-0.008
Site 4	NS	NS	NS		0.043	0.026	0.022	0.054	0.061	0.058	0.073	0.008
Site 5	NS	NS	NS	NS		-0.004	0.010	0.042	0.045	0.059	0.087	0.033
Site 6	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS		-0.004	0.046	0.030	0.069	0.086	-0.012
Site 7	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS		0.053	0.032	0.051	0.095	0.006
Site 8	*	NS	*	NS	NS	*	*		0.012	0.008	0.005	0.034
Site 9	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS		0.014	0.038	0.035
Site 10	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	*	NS	NS	NS		0.032	0.053
Site 11	*	NS	*	NS	NS	*	*	NS	NS	NS		0.065
Site 12	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	*	NS	NS	*	

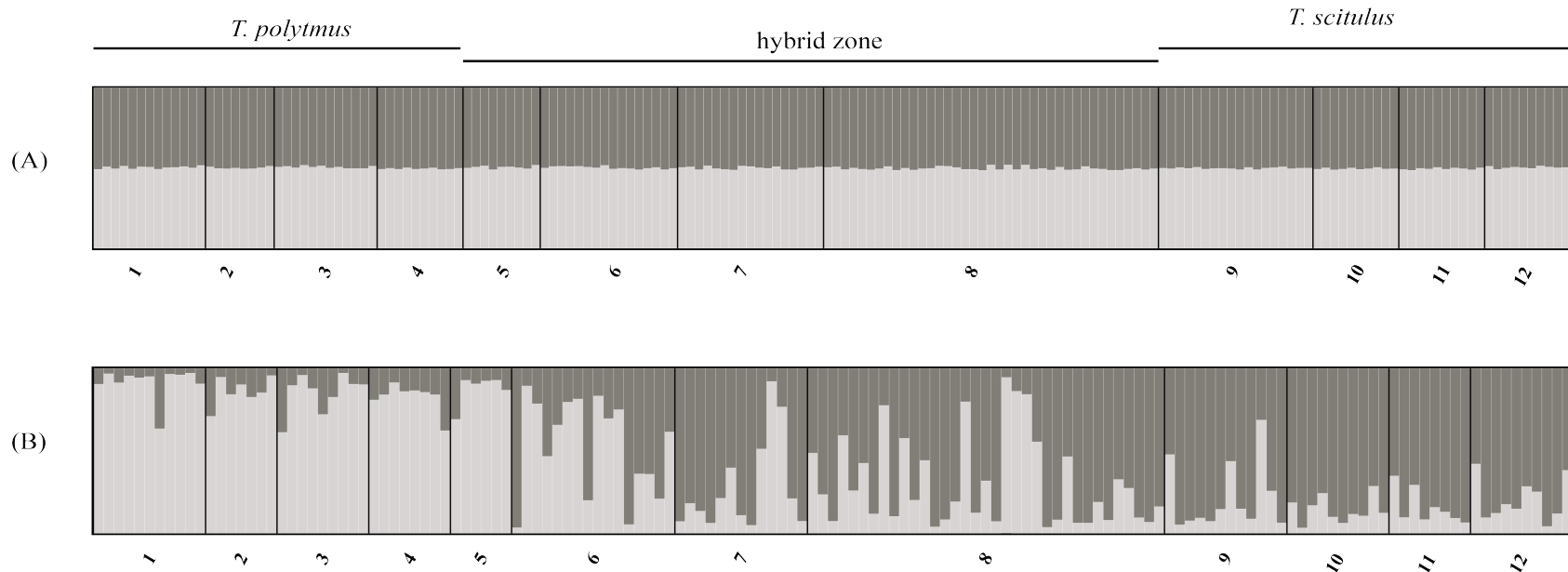


Fig. 3.2. (A) STRUCTURE admixture proportions ($K = 2$) for six microsatellite markers in 172 individual *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and their hybrids across 12 sites. (B) STRUCTURE admixture proportions ($K = 2$) for 23 “informative” SNPs in 145 individual *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and their hybrids across 12 sites.

Genotyping-by-sequencing

The FASTSTRUCTURE analysis performed on all SNPs ($n = 6,451$) did not reveal any interpretable pattern of genetic structure; all individuals assigned strongly to one genetic cluster (Fig. S3.5). The PCA revealed modest but obvious separation between species, with most phenotypic hybrids falling in the middle (Fig. 3.3).

The discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) based on 30 retained principal components showed even stronger, though imperfect discrimination among the three morpho-groups (Fig. 3.4). The densities plot for the first discriminant function reveals at least some overlap between parental species (Fig. 3.5). For the subset of informative SNPs that had loadings above the threshold, allele frequency differences between parental reference sites ranged from 0 to 0.6, of which only five loci had allele frequency differences greater than 0.5. The locus with the highest loading also had the highest absolute allele frequency difference between parental reference sites for both alleles: 0.6. No SNP had fixed or nearly fixed differences ($0.2 < f_0 < 0.8$) between reference populations (Table S3.7).

The STRUCTURE analysis performed on just the informative SNPs ($n=23$) resolved two distinct genetic clusters (Fig. 3.2 B). Higher values of K did not capture additional structures in the data (results not shown). The structure plot shows strong assignments to one genetic cluster by *T. polytmus* individuals in Sites 1-3, strong assignment to the other genetic cluster by *T. scitulus* individuals in Sites 9-12, and a range of assignments in hybrid populations.

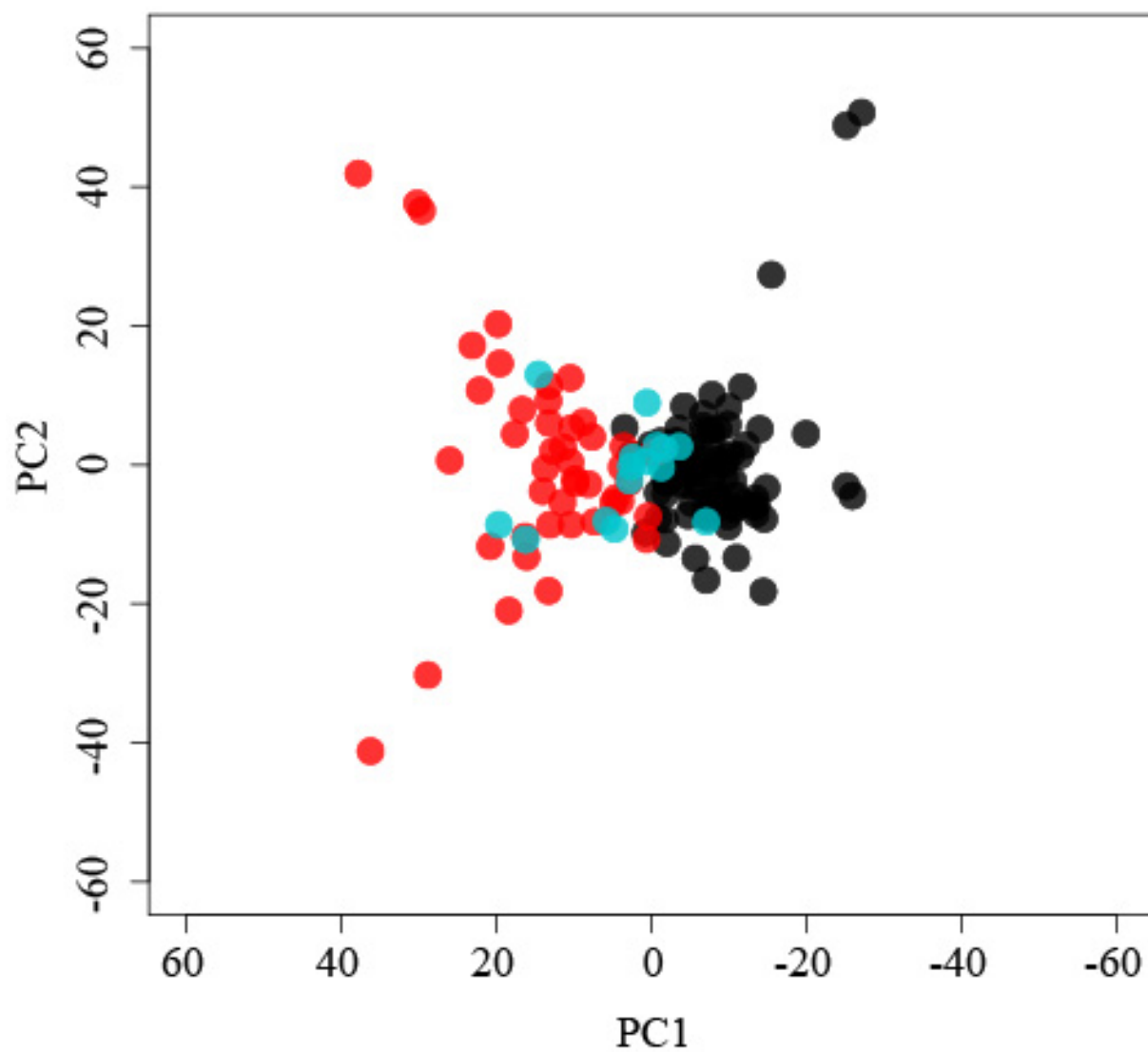


Fig. 3.3. Principal component analysis (PCA) of 145 individual *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and their hybrids in ordinate space. *Trochilus scitulus* = black circles, *T. polytmus* = red circles, and phenotypic hybrids = teal individuals.

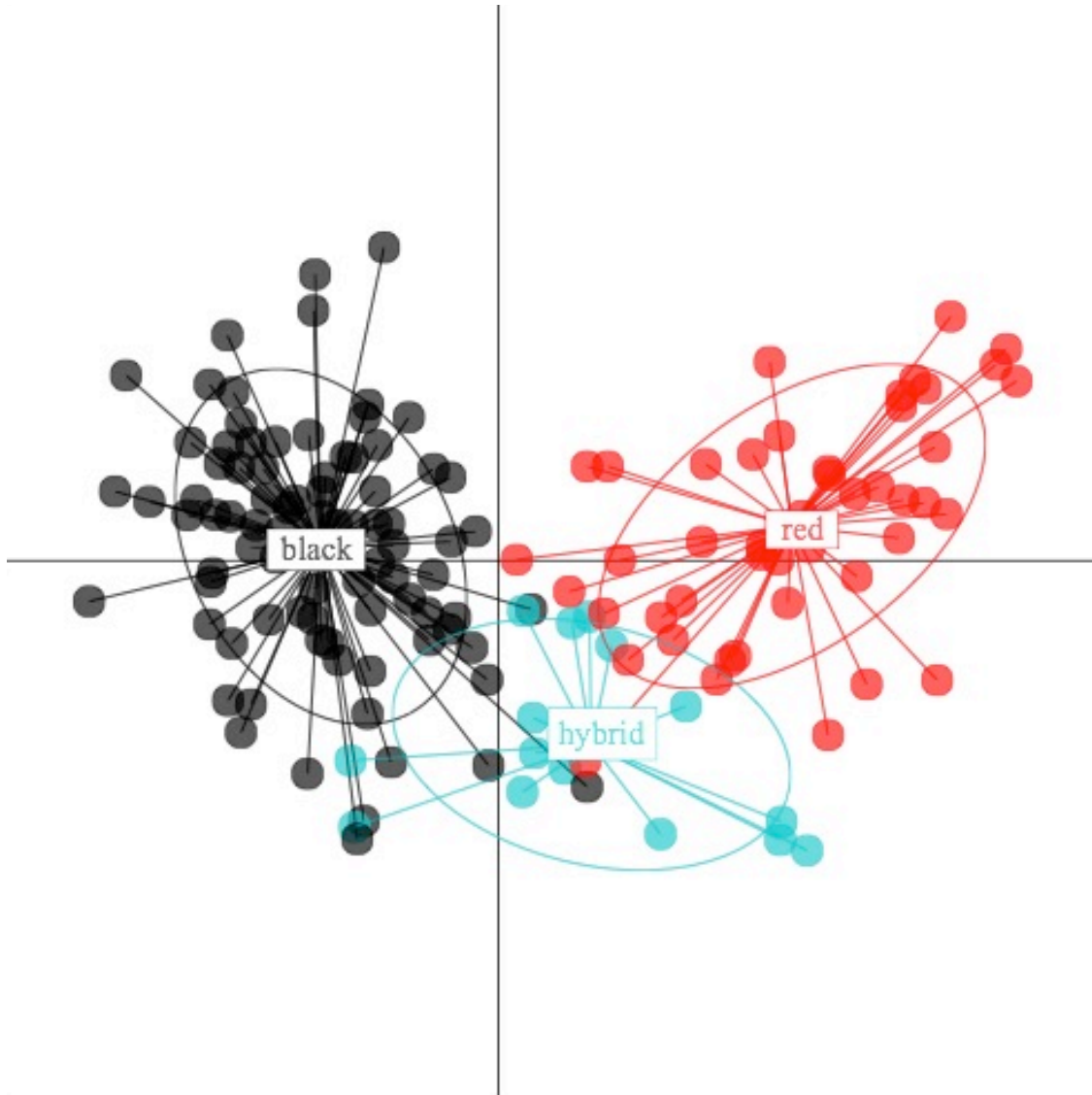


Fig. 3.4. Discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) based on 30 retained principal components in 6,451 SNPs and 145 individual *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and hybrids.

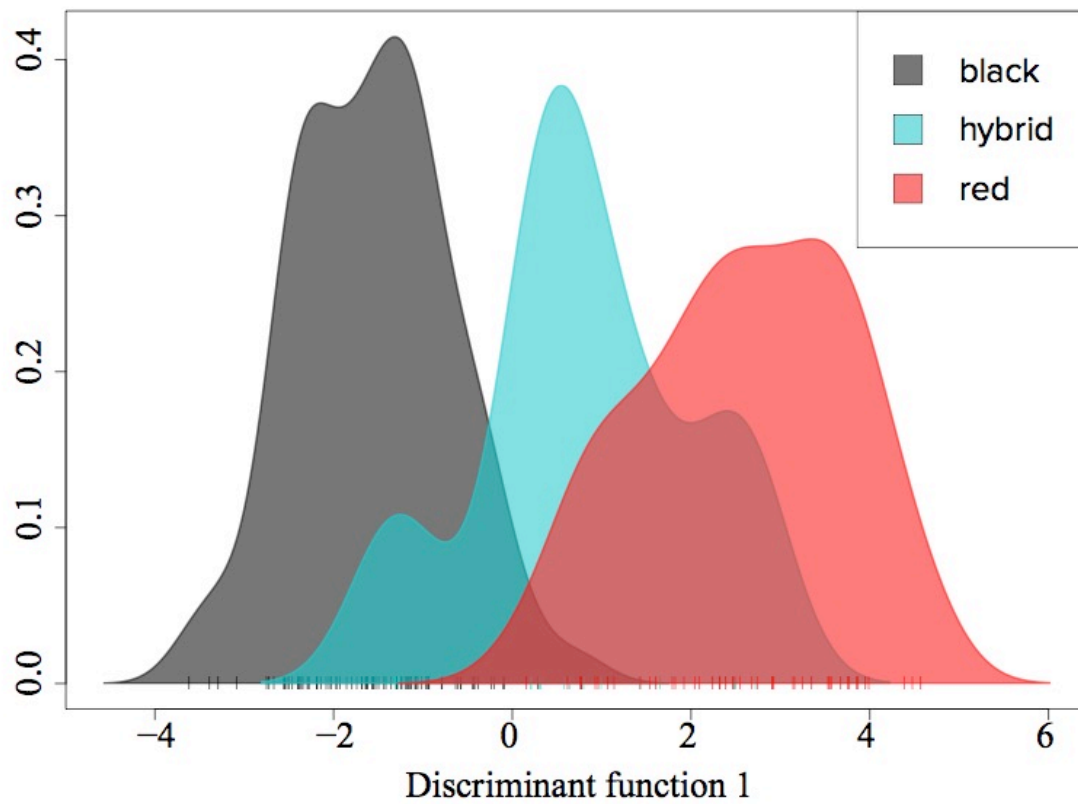


Table 3.5. Density of individuals along the first discriminant function. Red corresponds to *T. polytmus* individuals, black corresponds to *T. scitulus* individuals, and teal corresponds to hybrid individuals.

Geographic cline analysis

Clines for bill color were shockingly narrow for both sexes: only 2.2 km for males and 3.74 km in females (Fig. 3.6 A-C). Cline models for bill width were somewhat wider in both males (13.9 km) and females (16.0 km). Male clines were significantly narrower than female clines for both traits examined, and the cline centers for all morphological clines were statistically indistinguishable. Additionally, estimated variance was higher at the center of the clines than in the tails for all traits (bill color, bill width, and genetic admixture) (Table 3.3).

The cline for genetic admixture (sexes pooled) was also very narrow: 6.75 km (Fig. 3.7). Interestingly, its geographic cline center was identical to that for male bill width (135.8 km from Site 1), and its estimated variance was also higher at the center of the cline than in either tail. All cline centers for phenotypic and genetic admixture traits were coincident with the Rio Grande Valley in Eastern Jamaica.

Table 3.3. Estimates of genetic differentiation based on 6 microsatellite loci for 171 individuals across 12 sites of *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and putative hybrids. Pairwise F_{ST} values are above the diagonal, and corresponding significance levels are below. Strict Bonferroni-corrected p -value at $\alpha = 0.05$ is .000758. NS = not significant, * = significance at the 5% nominal level.

Group	Trait	Best Model	Center (CI)	Width (CI)	varH (CI)
males	bill color	I	135.8 (135.1 - 136.3)	2.2 (0.20 - 4.8)	2.21 (0.71 - 86,494)
males	bill width	I	132.4 (130.4 - 134.0)	13.9 (9.2 - 20.8)	1.8 E -4 (1.5 E -8 - 0.02)
females	bill color	V	134.3 (133.3 - 135.0)	3.74 (0.84 - 4.50)	1.17 (1.13 - 7.03)
females	bill width	I	135.3 (133.3 - 137.6)	16.0 (3.12 - 29.8)	2.39 E -5 (9.14 E -7 - 0.02)
sexes pooled	admixture	I	135.8 (135.0 - 136.5)	6.75 (4.70 - 9.16)	0.04 (0.03 - 0.06)

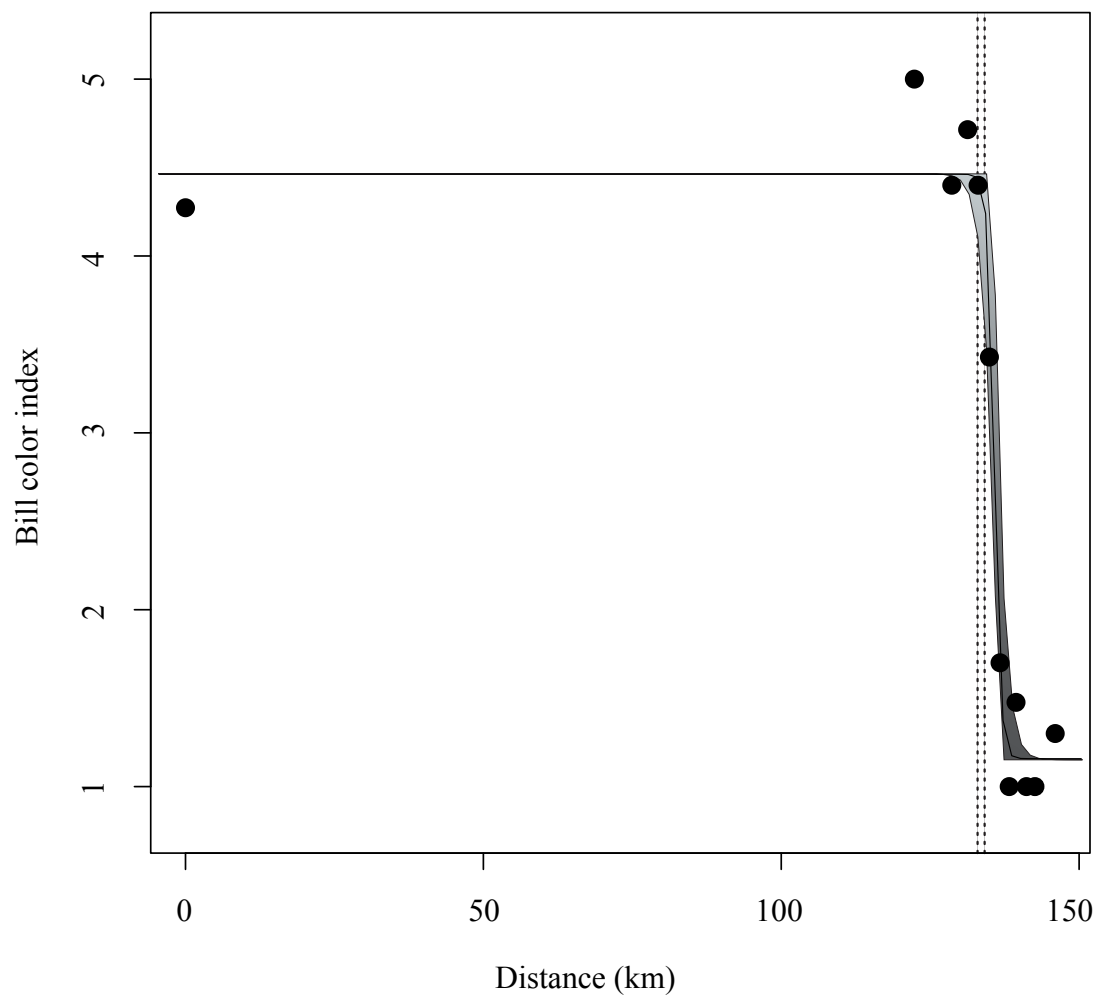


Fig. 3.6 A. Cline for male bill color. Gray shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals, and the vertical dotted lines represent the east and west boundaries of the Rio Grande River.

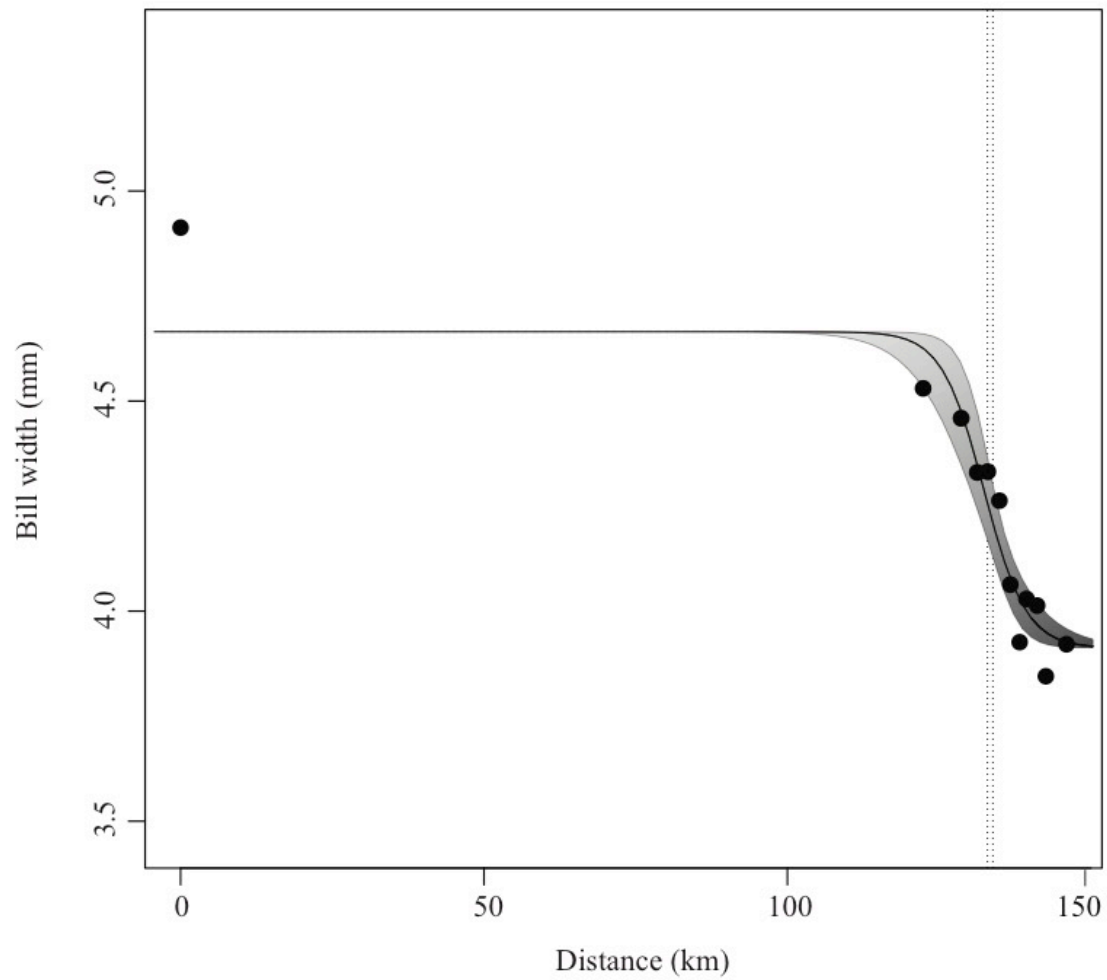


Fig. 3.6 B. Cline for male bill width. Gray shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals, and the vertical dotted lines represent the east and west boundaries of the Rio Grande River.

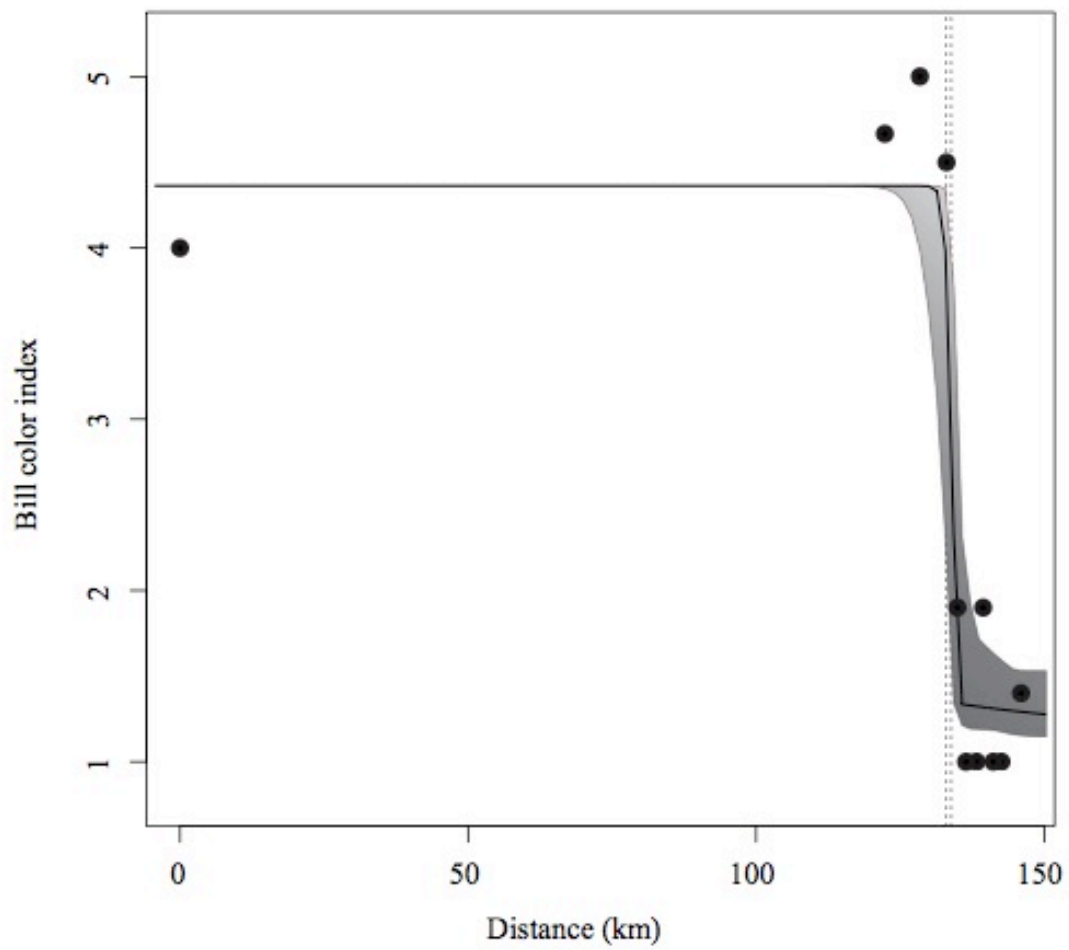


Fig. 3.6 C. Cline for female bill color. Gray shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals, and the vertical dotted lines represent the east and west boundaries of the Rio Grande River.

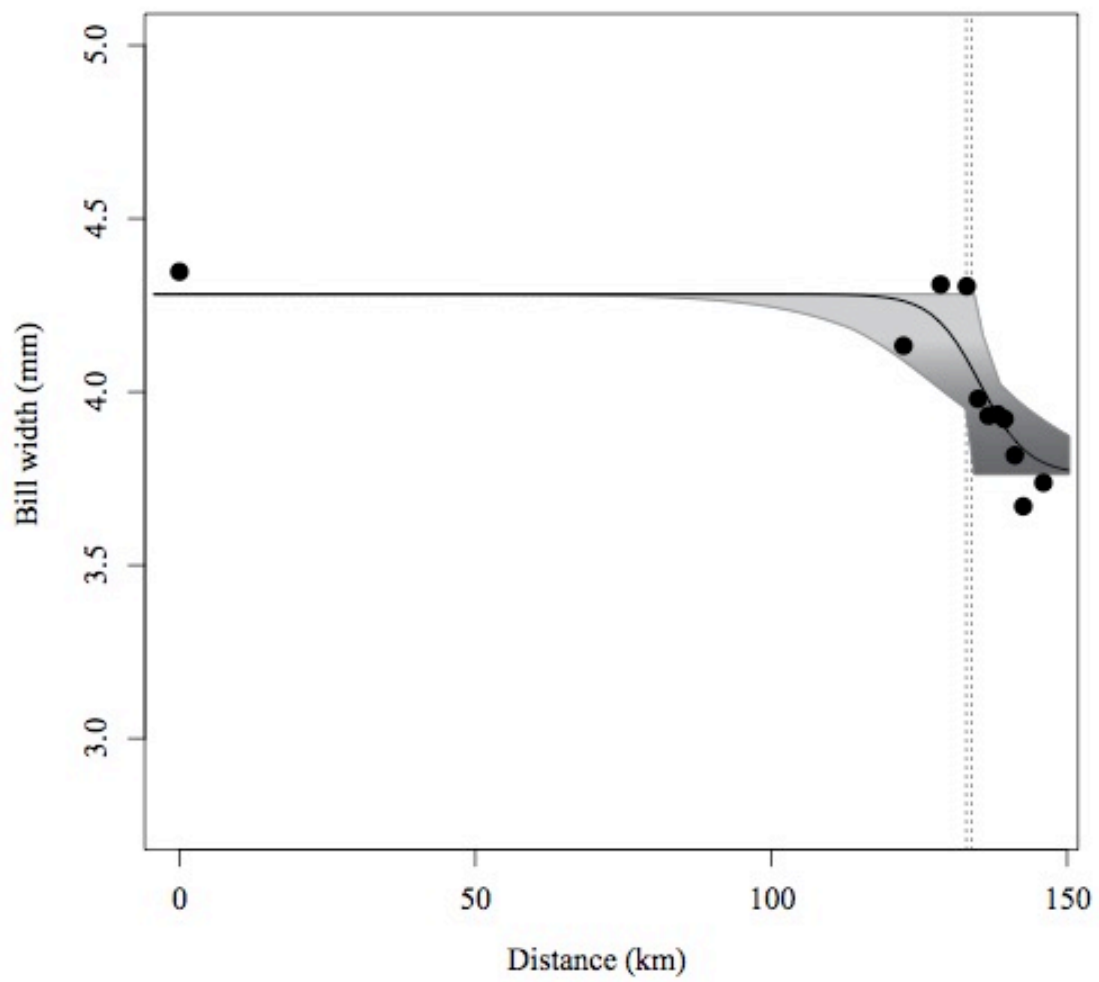


Fig. 3.6 D. Cline for female bill width. Gray shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals, and the vertical dotted lines represent the east and west boundaries of the Rio Grande River.

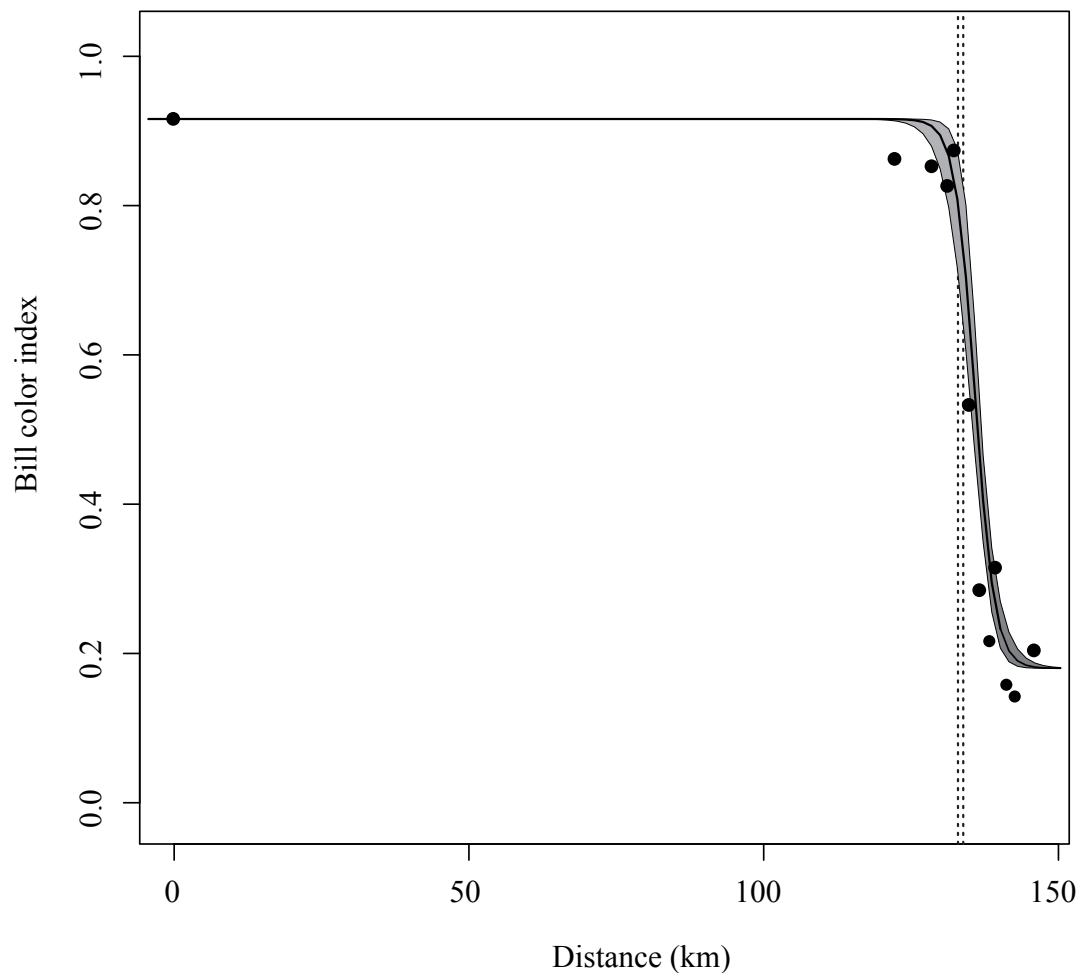


Fig. 3.7 Cline for admixture assignments (sexes pooled). Gray shading indicates the 95% confidence intervals, and the vertical dotted lines represent the east and west boundaries of the Rio Grande River.

DISCUSSION

Parapatric streamertail hummingbirds (*Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*) on the island of Jamaica are divergent in bill color and bill width, with both bill traits changing rapidly across the narrow hybrid zone. Along the same transect we detected genomic differentiation in a 6,451-SNP dataset. However, the amount of genomic differentiation was extremely low. For example, six microsatellite loci, markers that are typically

capable of detecting weak differentiation (Bruford and Wayne 1993) were unable to distinguish the taxa. Neither did a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) of 6,451 genome-wide SNPs fully discriminate the species. The DAPC approach is exceptionally powerful for discriminating closely related organisms (Jombart et al. 2010), so it is all the more surprising that this analysis failed to fully discriminate the *Trochilus* parental species.

In the 6,451 SNP dataset, no SNP had fixed or nearly fixed ($0.2 < f < 0.8$) allele frequency differences between reference parental sites. Only one SNP contributed majorly to the DAPC, and the loadings for each of its alleles were at least twice as high as the next highest loading, indicating that the cumulative signal of divergence in the other SNPs was comparably much lower. Nonetheless, Bayesian-derived admixture proportions based on this narrow set of “informative” SNPs revealed cline-like variation among *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and hybrids, suggesting that some of these 23 SNPs may be in or near gene regions that underpin the observed morphological differences.

Empirical studies of young or closely related avian lineages repeatedly show that strong divergence in sequence or gene expression can occur in a narrow set of genes where background divergence is weak or absent (Toews et al. 2015). For example, Poelstra et al. (2014) attribute phenotypic divergence in carrion and hooded crows to localized selection on pigmentation and visual perception genes in otherwise undifferentiated genomes. Toews et al. (2015) recovered only six divergent genomic peaks (four regions near pigment genes) in a whole-genome resequencing study of blue- and golden-winged warblers. Styrjewski and Sorenson (2017) show recombination of ancestral genetic variation in a very narrow set of genes explains phenotypic patterns in a

rapid radiation of munias. Such disparate signals for phenotypic and neutral genetic divergence occur in non-avian early-divergent taxa as well (e.g. sunflowers: Andrew and Rieseberg 2013; Renaut et al. 2013, butterflies: Nadeau et al. 2014), underscoring how rapidly phenotypic traits can diverge in nature, even in the absence of neutral genetic variation.

Characteristics of the hybrid zone

I found exceptionally narrow clines for male bill color (2.2 km) and bill width (13.9 km). Female clines were similar to, though slightly wider than, male clines for each trait. In particular, the narrow cline for male bill color (2.3 km) is among the narrowest clines reported from an avian hybrid zone, similar to the dramatically narrow clines for belly (3.0 km) and collar color (4.4 km) reported for lekking manakins in Panama (Butlin et al. 1991; Brumfield et al. 2001), and head coloration (5.1 km) in Reunion grey white-eyes (Delahaie et al. 2017).

The estimated cline centers for genetic and morphological traits are coincident with the Rio Grande Valley in eastern Jamaica. The Rio Grande is one of eight major rivers in Jamaica and separates the eastern Blue and John Crow Mountains. The geological history of this area is fairly complex. While most of the island is composed of limestone and likely emerged approximately 14 MYA in the mid-Miocene, the region to the east of the valley may have uplifted more recently, less than 2 MYA, during the lower to middle Pleistocene (Mitchell, Simon, University of the West Indies at Mona, pers. comm). It is interesting to speculate whether the uplift of the John Crow Mountains created an opportunity for vicariance, with recent hybridization between the parapatric forms erasing most of that signal for divergence.

Another possibility is that the Rio Grande River itself might be an effective dispersal barrier. The Rio Grande is narrow (~70 m wide) and does not seem like an important barrier for a vagile organism like a hummingbird. However, the agricultural activities in the larger valley, including removal of forest, may effectively increase the size of the perceived river barrier. Small dispersal barriers seem to have played a role in the diversification of lowland forms of the Reunion grey white-eyes (*Zosterops borbonicus*). These recently diverged but morphologically distinct taxa are distributed parapatrically and separated by narrow rivers or lava fields (Gill 1973, Delahaie et al. 2017). Thus, small barriers such as rivers may be effective to limit dispersal and create vicariance even for volant species in lowland island systems.

Regardless of past history, it appears that the valley is playing a role in contemporary patterns. Valleys often represent avian population density troughs. Hybrid zones maintained as tension zones can become geographically “stuck” in such troughs (Barton and Hewitt 1985, 1989). The black-billed streamertail density is known to be very high (> 900 individuals per km^2) despite its limited geographic range (Chapter 2). Other field observations suggest that streamertails may have higher population densities in the mountains (Bond 1956). If so, densities of both species may be lower in the valley, especially if agricultural activity has limited their numbers. However, more studies are needed to estimate densities in the valley to determine whether indeed it represents a density trough.

I calculated Endler’s neutral diffusion equation (1977) using the estimated cline width for male bill color (2.2 km), a one-kilometer dispersal distance, and a generation time of one year. Under these parameters, the *Trochilus* hybrid zone would have to have

formed less than five years ago. Hybrids were first documented nearly 70 years ago, and the current extent of the hybrid zone has been stable for almost 50 years (Bond 1956; Gill et al. 1973; Graves 2015). Correct inference of neutral diffusion and selection depends on accurate measures of dispersal (Baldassarre et al. 2014), which is unknown in *Trochilus*. Nonetheless, even using this conservative estimate for dispersal, it seems likely that some kind of natural selection is acting to maintain these narrow zones.

In selection-dependent zones, narrow clines can be produced by advancing waves of introgression from one species into another (Ferris et al. 1983). The best evidence against the advancing wave hypothesis is having multiple concordant clines for various traits (Barton and Hewitt 1985). I cannot completely rule out this hypothesis without a more detailed understanding of the underlying genetic architecture of bill color and bill width, since these traits could be linked in some way, as could be the SNPs. However, several lines of evidence point to the tension zone model. First, the zone has been stable for 50 generations. Second, the pair shows other subtle differences in morphology. *Trochilus scitulus* has a shorter bill, shorter wings, and a longer, more deeply forked tail than *T. polytmus* (Graves 2015). Additionally, aviary studies show some evidence for behavioral differences in courtship and song (Schuchmann 1978, 1980). These factors point to a tension zone model maintained as a balance between selection against hybrids offset by dispersal into the zone.

Assuming that the streamertail hybrid zone is a tension zone, the strength of selection against hybrid bill color must be extraordinary. Streamertail hummingbirds are polygynous and form leks based on resource defense, factors that increase the strength of sexual and other forms of social competition. Sexual selection accelerates signal

evolution (Seddon et al. 2008) and can drive speciation in the absence of other selective forces (West-Eberhard 1983; Higashi et al. 1999). More work is needed to explore the potential for sexual selection to promote divergence in bill color for streamertail hummingbirds and to understand the role of mate choice in maintaining this narrow zone.

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CHAPTER 4.

A TRANSCRIPTOMICS APPROACH TO IDENTIFYING THE GENETIC BASIS OF DIVERGENT BILL COLOR IN JAMAICAN STREAMERTAIL HUMMINGBIRDS

INTRODUCTION

Speciation is increasingly viewed as a continuous process (Powell et al. 2013; Seehausen et al. 2014) in which reproductive isolation is seen as the by-product of selection causing other phenotypes to diverge (Harrison 1998). Thus, a key goal for evolutionary studies is to identify the genetic basis of diverging phenotypes in species at various points along the speciation continuum (Nosil and Feder 2013). Young lineages at early stages in the continuum are useful models for examining the potential for a causal link between the divergent phenotypes and cessation of gene flow (Shaw and Mullen 2011; Nosil and Feder 2013; Powell et al. 2013; Seehausen et al. 2014).

Recent advances in sequencing technologies have opened up new avenues for speciation research in avian taxa (Toews et al. 2015). For example, reduced-representation approaches such as genotyping by sequencing (GBS) and double digest restriction-associated DNA sequencing (ddRADSeq) outperform traditional loci to resolve population structure in species with shallow divergence (e.g. Campagna et al. 2015). However, these data tend to be scattered at sites across the genome, including non-coding sites; therefore, it is sometimes impossible to obtain functional information of the variant containing sequences unless sites in question are tightly linked to particular genes, or a reference genome is available (de Wit et al. 2012).

Revolutionary new approaches to RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) have enabled sequencing of the coding genes in nonmodel organisms. Annotation tools allow for

reliable mapping and annotation of these coding genes (Jax et al. 2018). Thus, RNA-seq experiments have made it possible to examine gene expression differences that underpin divergent phenotypes within a species complex (e.g. Mason and Taylor 2015) or between young lineages at early stages of speciation (Wolf et al. 2010; Uebbing et al. 2016), shedding light on the mode of gene expression evolution (Gilad et al. 2006) and the role of selection to either promote or constrain expression divergence (Whitehead and Crawford 2006).

Birds are remarkably diverse in color traits relative to other vertebrate groups, especially mammals (Galván and Solano 2016). For birds, pigmentation is largely attributed to melanins, a ubiquitous class of polymers that serve multiple functions in avian and other vertebrate taxa. For example, melanin-based traits serve as visual cues in courtship, lend structural support against mechanical damage or feather-degrading bacteria, and confer crypsis (Galván and Solano 2016). Understanding form and function of melanin-based traits and the factors to promote their remarkable diversity has long captivated evolutionary biologists (Darwin 1871; Mayr 1942). More recently, evolutionary biologists have applied genomic tools to identify the genetic basis for divergent melanin-based traits and investigate causal links to speciation (Uy et al. 2018).

Two of the most widely studied genes across birds and other non-avian vertebrates are the melanocortin-1 receptor (*MC1R*) and agouti signaling protein (*ASIP*) (Hubbard et al. 2010). In particular, *MC1R* is highly conserved across vertebrates (Mundy 2005). A single amino acid change has been perfectly linked with plumage variation across island populations of *Monarcha castaneoventris* (Uy et al. 2016), red-footed boobies (Baião et al. 2007), and bananaquits (Theron et al. 2001), among others

(reviewed in Mundy 2005). The *ASIP* gene is a paracrine signaling protein that causes melanocytes to switch from producing eumelanin (dark melanins) to pheomelanin (red and brown melanins) and has known pleiotropic effects as well as epistatic relationships with *MC1R* (Hoekstra 2006; Hubbard et al. 2010). However, melanin-related pathways involve hundreds of genes (Poelstra et al. 2013; Galván and Solano 2016). For example, research involving laboratory mice has uncovered melanin pathway genes including upstream signaling receptors, in addition to their immediate regulators (such as *ASIP*), downstream elements that are directly involved in eumelanin synthesis, and a suite of genes acting during melanosome biogenesis or transport that also have major phenotypic effects (reviewed in Poelstra et al. 2013). More work is needed to characterize the molecular function and phenotypic effects of these lesser known pigmentation genes to better understand causal links to avian speciation (Hubbard et al. 2010).

The distinctive hummingbird genus *Trochilus*, which is represented exclusively by two sexually dichromatic taxa endemic to the oceanic island of Jamaica, has long represented a possible exception to the rule that *in situ* speciation on small oceanic islands does not occur in birds (Poelstra et al. 2013; Galván and Solano 2016). The males of these species are distinguished primarily by bill color (Brewster and Bangs 1901), a secondary sexual ornament, which is coral red and narrowly tipped in black (partially melanized) in the red-billed streamertail (*Trochilus polytmus*), and jet black (fully melanized) in the black-billed streamertail (*T. scitulus*). In field-based collections, the red coloration of *T. polytmus* fades rapidly post mortem, suggesting that the bill appears red due to the presence of highly vascularized tissues rather than a red pigment such as a carotenoid or pheomelanin (Graves 2009, 2015). Phylogenetic (McGuire et al. 2014) and

population genetic analyses (Chapter 3) reveal shallow divergence between these taxa, yet strong selection appears to maintain the divergent bill color trait in the face of ongoing hybridization.

Here, I used a transcriptomics approach to characterize gene expression and sequence divergence between *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus* hummingbirds. I built a *de novo* transcriptome using paired-end cDNA libraries derived from pectoral muscle tissue of 3 *T. polytmus* and 4 *T. scitulus* individuals, and annotated the transcriptome using Blast2Go (Conesa et al. 2005). I further annotated the transcriptome using Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (blastx) searches against a custom database containing only candidate pigmentation genes. Finally, I identified a panel of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) to examine variation of interspecific sequence polymorphisms. My specific goals are to 1) examine evidence for gene expression and nucleotide sequence divergence, and 2) identify genes that are putatively involved in melanogenesis or melanin transport as a first step in characterizing the genetic basis for the divergent bill color trait.

METHODS

Field methods

Eight streamertails were mist-netted at least 90 minutes after sunrise between 4 and 13 December 2014. Red-billed streamertails (*Trochilus polytmus*, n = 4) were netted on the property of Windsor Research Station in Trelawny Parish. Black-billed (*T. scitulus*, n = 4) were netted on Ecclesdown Road in Portland Parish (Table 4.1). Netted streamertails were placed individually in soft muslin bags and suspended in shaded locations with good air circulation for a holding time of at least 15 min prior to

euthanization. After the initial holding period, I photographed the bill of each bird in a dorsal and ventral position using a Panasonic Lumix® digital camera. Following euthanasia, the birds were dissected and the tissue samples removed using sterile dissection tools. A separate scissor and forceps were used for each tissue to avoid cross contamination of tissue-specific RNAs.

Tissues were processed in the following sequence: pectoral muscle (current study), whole brain, whole eyes, heart, and liver. All tissue samples were placed in pre-labeled organ-specific 1.5 mL tubes filled with RNALater™ (Ambion), and were scored heavily to ensure even fixation of tissues in the buffer solution. The post mortem interval (PMI; time between euthanization and stabilization of each individual tissue in RNALater™) was recorded in a field notebook (Cheviron et al. 2011). Following recommendations from Ambion, RNA samples were incubated at room temperature for 24 hours, after which the RNALater™ was drained from the tubes, and tissues were patted dry using sterile cotton and returned to the dry tube. Each tube was then submerged in LN2 for transport back to the United States. The tubes were transferred to a -80° C freezer for permanent storage. Once tissues had been placed in RNALater™, the birds were processed as round skins and partial skeletons. I recorded data for each bird in a field notebook, including location and time of capture, soft part coloration, sex and breeding status, time of euthanasia, and post mortem interval (elapsed time between euthanasia and stabilization of tissue on RNALater™).

RNA-seq library preparation and sequencing

I performed mRNA extraction using 2-10 mg of pectoral muscle from each individual. Tissue samples were individually placed in sterile petri dishes and weighed

using an Adam PW 124 (max 120g, d=0.0001g) scale. Samples were then homogenized in individual 1.5 ml ribonuclease-free tubes using a power drill and sterile drill bits, and extracted following the ‘mini’ mRNA extraction protocol as described in the Dynabeads® mRNA DIRECT™ kit (Invitrogen). To reduce the amount of rRNA contamination, I performed the optional second wash using Buffer ‘B’, and samples were eluted using the low temperature setting, 65-70° C. Each sample was assessed for quality and quantity using the Agilent® Tape Station.

Rapid Genomics® prepared paired-end, individually barcoded cDNA libraries from the eight muscle samples using in-house protocols. Bioanalyzer® traces were generated to assess quality of the amplified libraries. Due to the presence of adapter dimers, Rapid Genomics® performed an additional round of cleanup. A Bioanalyzer® trace on the pooled library showed that the adapter dimer had been effectively removed. Libraries were individually barcoded and pooled for sequencing to 150bp on the Illumina HiSeq3000.

Transcriptome assembly

I used de-multiplexed reads from seven libraries representing 3 *T. polytmus* and 4 *T. scitulus* individuals to assemble a *de novo* transcriptome. Prior to assembly, I used TRIM_GALORE! to trim adapter sequences or partial adapter sequences from the 3’ ends of the reads. I also used TRIM_GALORE! to filter low-quality reads with a phred score < 20 and short reads less than < 20 bp (Table S4.1). The TRIM_GALORE! option “--paired” maintained the integrity of the paired data by removing read pairs for which one of the two sequences failed to pass filter, and “orphan” reads were not discarded, but stored in a separate file.

I used the AGALMA pipeline (Dunn et al. 2013) to perform the *de novo* assembly on the trimmed and filtered reads. AGALMA calls TRINITY (Haas et al. 2013) for the assembly step, but, unlike a standard TRINITY run, the AGALMA pipeline first performs subassemblies and uses blast functions to remove contigs and associated reads that map to rRNA (Dunn et al. 2013). Removing RNA prior to the assembly step reportedly improves the efficiency of assembly (Dunn et al. 2013). I performed quality checks of the final *de novo* assembly by 1) counting the number of transcripts that assembled into each transcriptome using the ‘grep’ command (`$ grep -c '>' Trinity.fasta`), and 2) generating contig statistics using the TRINITY script, `TrinityStats.pl`. These statistics include the contig N50, the length for which at least 50% of assembled bases are in transcripts of length x. I based the calculation N50 using the longest isoform per ‘gene,’ which is slightly more indicative of assembly quality than performing the N50 on all assembled transcripts. Isoforms are alternative mRNAs produced by the same gene, but which differ in their transcription start sites, protein-coding sequence, or untranslated regions (UTRs). I also calculated the ExN50, which scales the N50 by expression to give the same statistic but for just the highest expressed genes as given by percentage threshold.

To further evaluate the quality of the assembly, I used BOWTIE, an ultrafast, memory-efficient short read aligner (Langmead et al. 2009), to map the paired reads in each library back to the *de novo* assembly, and the TRINITY perl script (`SAM_nameSorted_to_uniq_count_stats.pl`) to evaluate how well the reads mapped back to the assembly. Paired reads that mapped to the same contig were considered properly mapped, whereas paired reads that mapped to different contigs were considered improperly mapped. An assembly’s quality is generally considered to be good if > 70%

of the reads in a library map back to the assembly in proper pairs. Finally, I evaluated the *de novo* assembly based on the number of fully assembled coding transcripts. To do this, I performed blastx searches of the translated transcripts against a database of protein sequences (SWISSPROT).

Transcriptome annotation and development of a candidate gene list

I annotated the *Trochilus* transcriptome by performing searches against the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) non-redundant protein database (hereafter, the “nr” database) using blastx and a minimum e-value of 1E-6. I used the top hit to each query sequence to perform mapping of gene ontology terms and functional annotation using the program Blast2GO (Conesa et al. 2005).

Poelstra et al. (2013) performed an exhaustive search of melanin-related genes to identify the genetic basis for plumage polymorphism in carrion and hooded crows. They identified 95 genes. I expanded this list by searching for avian gene and gene products associated with GO terms that had matches to key word descriptions “melanin” and “melanosome” using the AMIGO2 browser, a web-based tool for gene ontology searching (The Gene Ontology Consortium 2015). I discovered 51 GO terms in my search (Table S4.5). I then used these melanin-associated GO terms as queries in AGBASE to identify associated gene and gene products. I discovered 24 of the genes identified by Poelstra et al. (2013). I searched for the remaining 71 genes using Entrez gene symbols in bird genomes listed in Agbase. In some cases, I expanded the search to include all vertebrates to recover well-annotated gene accessions for a given gene symbol. I filtered the results to include only gene and gene products that had corresponding Uniprot accession numbers, and limited the number of representative taxa to no more than five

per gene symbol. In total, I curated 486 accessions representing 198 unique candidate pigmentation genes (Table S4.6). I accessed the sequences of these accessions through UniprotKB, and downloaded them in fasta format, which I then transformed into a custom database. I performed blastx searches against this custom database using a minimum e-value of $1E^{-6}$.

Differential expression

I compared gene expression profiles among the individuals in this study by aligning each library back to the *de novo* transcriptome. This step was performed using the Trinity wrapper script “align_and_estimate_abundance.pl”, which calls the program RSEM (Li and Dewey 2011). The resulting alignments are used to estimate transcript abundance and their credibility intervals. This script outputs a table containing the expression values for each transcript. I then used RSEM to perform cross sample normalization according to the Trimmed Mean of M-values normalization (TMM) method (Robinson and Oshlack 2010). The TMM method is recommended for RNA-seq datasets, for which most (over half) of the genes are not expected to be differentially expressed. The TMM method reports the transcript quantities as Fragments Per Kilobase of cDNA per Million Fragments mapped (FPKM) value for each transcript and individual.

I used EDGER (Robinson et al. 2010) to perform the differential expression analysis at both the gene and isoform level. For pairwise comparisons between two groups, EDGER fits a negative binomial to the data and estimates dispersion using the quantile-adjusted conditional maximum likelihood method. Significance is determined using an exact test that is similar to Fisher’s exact test. Because these tests are extremely

powerful, it is easy to detect ‘significant differences’ no matter how small the difference is. Therefore, a common practice is to consider only the subset of differentially expressed genes that have low adjusted p -values and are above a certain log-fold change threshold. Here, I used a FDR < 0.05 and ranked genes in terms of significance above a 4 log-fold change threshold. Isoforms and genes that were identified as being significant were blasted against the NCBI nonredundant protein database BLASTX using a minimum threshold e-value of 1E-4. I used the top hit to each query sequence to perform mapping of gene ontology terms and functional annotation, using the program BLAST2GO (Conesa et al. 2005) to assess the biological function of differentially expressed genes.

SNP discovery

I identified a panel of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) by aligning individual RNAseq libraries to the *de novo* transcriptome. The alignments were performed using the Burrows-Wheeler Aligner (BWA), a read alignment package that efficiently aligns short reads against a reference sequence (Li and Durbin 2009). I used the BWA-mem algorithm, which is recommended for reads over 75 base pairs long. The alignments were outputted in standard SAM (Sequence Alignment / Map) format (Li et al. 2009). Next, I performed a series of pre-processing steps recommended in the GATK best practices for variant calling in RNAseq. These steps include sorting the outputted sam files by coordinates using Samtools, converting the sam to bam format, adding read groups using the Picard tool AddOrReplaceReadGroups, and marking PCR and optical duplicates using the Picard tool MarkDuplicates. Finally, I called SNPs from indexed versions of my bam files using the UnifiedGenotyper tool under default settings (GATK, DePristo et al. 2011). I used the GATK filtering tool VariantFiltration recommended in the

best practices document to filter low-quality SNPs. Specifically, the filter was for Fisher Strand Values greater than 30, a quality score normalized by a read depth minimum of 3, and SNP clusters of at least 3 SNPs within a 35 base pair window. I performed additional filtering for missingness and allelic count. I retained 155,827 bi-allelic SNPs with at least six complete genotypes out of the initial callset of 905,908 SNPs.

SNP analysis

Initial patterns of variation in the SNP dataset were visualized using a principal component analysis (PCA) within the R module Adegenet (Jombart 2008). Multivariate approaches such as PCAs are well suited for exploring patterns in large genomic datasets because they can detect structures in the data without making assumptions about the underlying population genetic model (Jombart et al. 2010). I converted a VCF formatted file containing 155,827 filtered RNAseq variants to an Adegenet ‘genlight’ object using the *vcfR2genlight* function. These SNPs were previously filtered for missingness (see section on SNP discovery, above) and have only 5.67% missing data (at least six of seven genotypes present for each SNP). The class ‘genlight’ is a formal S4 object for storing genotypes of binary SNPs in a compact way, using a bit-level coding scheme (see R Help Module genlight-class {adegenet} for more information). I performed the PCA on the genlight object containing the 155,827 SNPs using the *glPCA* function under default settings (center=TRUE, scaling=FALSE). Centering is done by subtracting the value from the center of each column from its corresponding column mean (omitting NAs). No scaling was performed on these genetic data.

To more effectively discriminate between species, I performed a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC; Jombart et al. 2010). The DAPC yields

synthetic variables of alleles that maximize the between-group variance and minimize within-group variance (Jombart et al. 2010). The DAPC requires a PCA as a prior step, which transforms the data so that variables are uncorrelated and their numbers are less than that of the analyzed individuals, two key assumptions of a discriminant analysis (Jombart et al. 2010). Discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) (Jombart et al. 2010) was performed on the first two PCA axes. I conducted two DAPC analyses, one in which I used the *find.clusters* option to identify clusters without *a priori* knowledge of the species, and another in which the two species were defined *a priori*.

I used the program Bayescan to identify candidate SNP loci that may be experiencing positive selection (Foll and Gaggiotti 2008; Foll et al. 2010; Fischer et al. 2011). Bayescan uses allele frequency differences between species or populations to identify F_{ST} outliers. Selection is inferred by decomposing each F_{ST} into a population-specific component (beta), and a locus-specific component (alpha), the latter of which is shared by all populations. Strongly positive values of alpha suggest diversifying selection, whereas negative values suggest balancing selection.

In the context of multiple testing, Bayescan incorporates skepticism about the chance that a given locus is under selection in two ways: by setting the prior odds for the neutral model, and by using the posterior odds (ratio of posterior probabilities for each model), which indicates how probable a model with selection is compared to a neutral model. Bayescan calculates a *q*-value, defined as the false discovery rate analog of the *p*-value, which is the minimum FDR at which this locus may become significant.

To prepare SNPs for analysis in Bayescan, I converted a VCF file containing 155,827 bi-allelic SNPs to Bayescan input format using a custom perl script

(“make_bayescan_input.py”, author Jason Ladner, available at <http://sfg.stanford.edu/>; De Wit et al. 2012), setting a quality genotype threshold of 5 and a 2 as the number of individuals required per species. This filtering resulted in a final set of 121,092 bi-allelic SNPs for use in Bayescan. To identify significant outliers, I set the prior odds threshold to 1,000, which is suitable for large datasets with SNPs numbering in the thousands. I compared results to a second analysis where I set the prior odds threshold to 100. In both analyses, I define outliers as loci having the highest posterior odds threshold achieving an FDR of 10%.

Table 4.1. Specimen information including locality name (Windsor = Windsor Research Center in Trelawny Parish, Ecclesdown = Ecclesdown Road in Portland Parish), geographic coordinates rounded to two decimal places (North, West), the elevation at the site of capture in meters over sea level, the date of capture, the initials of preparator (MLB = Matthew L. Brady, CDJ = Caroline D. Judy), and sex of the specimens (M = male). Also included are the time of capture, the time of euthanasia, and the post-mortem interval defined as the elapsed time between euthanasia and subsequent stabilization of muscle tissue in RNAlater[®].

Field ID	Locality	North	West	Elevation (m)	Date	Preparator	Species	Sex	Time of capture	Time of euthanasia	PMI
MLB365	Windsor	18.35	77.65	122	5-Dec-14	MLB	<i>T. polytmus</i>	M	12:30	14:25	2.0
MLB366	Windsor	18.35	77.65	122	5-Dec-14	MLB	<i>T. polytmus</i>	M	12:30	16:45	3.0
MLB367	Windsor	18.35	77.65	122	6-Dec-14	MLB	<i>T. polytmus</i>	M	17:30	18:13	4.0
CDJ238	Windsor	18.36	77.64	100	5-Dec-14	CDJ	<i>T. polytmus</i>	M	10:30	13:30	10.0
CDJ245	Ecclesdown	18.11	76.33	61	9-Dec-14	CDJ	<i>T. scitulus</i>	M	9:05	2:19	5.0
CDJ247	Ecclesdown	18.11	76.33	61	9-Dec-14	CDJ	<i>T. scitulus</i>	M	11:30	6:01	5.0
CDJ249	Ecclesdown	18.11	76.33	61	10-Dec-14	CDJ	<i>T. scitulus</i>	M	8:45	11:10	5.0
MLB368	Ecclesdown	18.11	76.33	61	9-Dec-14	MLB	<i>T. scitulus</i>	M	8:00	9:04	2.0

RESULTS

Sample tissues were preserved from 8 individuals (4 *T. polytmus* and 4 *T. scitulus*) with post mortem intervals (PMI) ranging from 2-10 minutes (Table 4.1). The mRNA extractions showed that mRNA was of generally good quality with yields of 14 - 166 nanograms of total mRNA per sample. The multiplexed Hiseq sequencing run produced 28 - 45 million reads per library. The FASTQC reports on the raw library reads (not shown) indicated that the sequencing quality was generally good. Per-base phred scores were greater than 34 in both R1 and R2 across most of the sequence length, with a slightly lower score for the first 6-7 bases. Of note, the quality of the sequence decreased after approximately 100 base pairs. This quality drop at the 5' end of the reads was more pronounced in the R2 reads.

Adapter contamination was significant in all libraries; however, it was highest in *T. polytmus* sample CDJ_238. Quality trimming removed 56% of paired reads from sample library CDJ_238 compared with 3 - 8% of reads for the other libraries (Table S4.1). Therefore, I excluded the sample library for individual CDJ_238 from all downstream analyses. Post-trimming FASTQC reports for the other seven libraries showed that the quality scores improved overall, especially for 5' end of the reads (not shown). The final data set was composed of libraries from three *T. polytmus* and four *T. scitulus*.
Assembly assessment and annotation

The final assembly incorporated 181,109,054 bases into 193,916 transcripts, corresponding to 154,348 transcripts, and had an overall GC content of 48.25%. The contig N50 based on all transcripts was 1,360 bp. Considering only the longest isoform per gene, the N50 was 814 (Table S4.2). The N50 statistics scaled by expression (ExN50)

indicated that N50 for the 70% highest expressed genes was 1,587 (Table S4.3). Mapping the individual libraries back onto the assembly resulted in 57 - 71% proper pairs per library, with six of seven libraries close to, but slightly under, the desired 70% threshold (Fig. S4.1). The number of transcripts containing greater than 80% of a protein sequence was 7,426 (Table S4.4).

Searches against the nr database resulted in significant hits to 64,632 transcripts. Of these, 11,846 (~18%) transcripts were mapped and annotated in Blast2Go. The top blast hits were primarily to bird species, with the vast majority to Anna's hummingbird (*Calypte anna*) (Fig. S4.2). The top 20 gene ontology terms mapped by Blast2Go included the biological process "biogenesis" and "signaling", the molecular function "transporting", and the cellular component "organelle" among others (Fig. S4.3). I performed additional searches against a custom database containing 486 accessions of 196 candidate pigmentation genes (hereafter, "pigmentation gene database"), which resulted in significant hits to 5,766 transcripts, and mapping and annotation of 3,088 transcripts in Blast2Go. Of these, 2,400 had not successfully mapped in searches against the nr database (Fig. S4.5). I recovered 184 of the 196 pigmentation genes in the pigmentation gene database. The combined number of mapped transcripts across the two databases was 13,087.

Most of the GO terms recovered from searches against the pigmentation gene database were the same ones recovered from blast searches against the nr database (Fig. S4.4). Only eight GO terms were recovered in the blastx against the nr database that were not also recovered in the pigmentation gene database. Conversely, only one term,

“nutrient reservoir activity,” was recovered in searches against the pigmentation gene database that was not also recovered in searches against the nr database.

Differential expression profiling

The expression profiles between the species were largely similar. Few isoforms (Fig. 4.1) and genes (Fig. 4.2) showed significant differences in expression at an FDR of 0.05, of which, only 10 isoforms (Fig. 4.3) and 4 genes (Fig. 4.4) showed greater than four-fold differences. The *de novo* transcript, “TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g12,” had a highly significant blast hit to *BLOC1S1* (biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 1; chromosome 33 in *Gallus*), an autosomal protein-coding gene that has a known pigmentation function in mice. TRINITY_DN43361_c1_g1_i1 appears to blast to *NDUFB7* (NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase subunit B7; chromosome 30 in *Gallus*), a highly conserved autosomal gene. Finally, TRINITY_DN49333_c0_g1_i1 blasted to *SPCSI* (signal peptidase complex subunit 1, chromosome 12 in *Gallus*), an autosomal gene involved in signal peptide processing that is associated with the endoplasmic reticulum. Expression profile TRINITY_DN49852_c0_g5, returned no blast hits. Seven other isoforms were discovered to have 4-fold differences between species (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. Annotations for the differentially expressed genes and isoforms. The gene symbols and GO terms listed are associated with the blast hits against the nr database.

Transcript	Level	Gene Symbol	Ontology Terms
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g12_i1	both	<i>BLOC1S1</i>	mitochondrial intermembrane space, mitochondrial matrix, <i>BLOC-1</i> complex, axon cytoplasm, aerobic respiration, endosomal transport, peptidyl-lysine acetylation, neuron projection development, anterograde synaptic vesicle transport, anterograde axonal transport, peptidyl-lysine acetylation
TRINITY_DN49852_c0_g5_i1	both	n.a	n.a.
TRINITY_DN43361_c1_g1_i1	both	<i>NDUFB7</i>	mitochondrial respiratory chain complex I, NADH dehydrogenase activity, NADH dehydrogenase
TRINITY_DN36544_c0_g2	gene only	<i>SPCSI</i>	signal peptide processing, proteolysis, protein targeting to ER
TRINITY_DN49333_c0_g1_i1	isoform only	<i>MYBPH</i>	A band, myosin filament, cell adhesion
TRINITY_DN52825_c0_g2_i10	isoform only	<i>PSAM5</i>	Antigen processing and presentation of exogenous peptide antigen via MHC class I, TAP-dependent, proteolysis, ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process, proteasome-mediated ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process, proteolysis involved in cellular protein catabolic process
TRINITY_DN54486_c2_g3_i5	isoform only	<i>HNRNPA2B1</i>	nucleoplasm, cytoplasm, membrane, extracellular exosome, catalytic step 2 spliceosome, nucleotide binding, mRNA 3'-UTR binding, miRNA binding, single-stranded telomeric DNA binding, pre-mRNA intronic binding, N6-methyladenosine-containing RNA binding, negative regulation of transcription by RNA polymerase II, mRNA splicing, via spliceosome, mRNA export from nucleus, primary miRNA processing, negative regulation of mRNA splicing, via spliceosome, miRNA transport

Table continued.

Transcript	Level	Gene Symbol	Ontology Terms
TRINITY_DN47870_c0_g1_i3	isoform only	<i>EMC6</i>	ER membrane protein complex subunit 6
TRINITY_DN53818_c0_g1_i4	isoform only	<i>ACHE</i>	basement membrane, extracellular space, Golgi apparatus, plasma membrane, cell surface, cell junction, anchored component of membrane, neuromuscular junction, perinuclear region of cytoplasm, acetylcholinesterase activity, collagen binding, serine hydrolase activity, acetylcholine binding, protein homodimerization activity, laminin binding, protein self-association, regulation of receptor recycling, osteoblast development, acetylcholine catabolic process, cell adhesion, receptor internalization, neurotransmitter receptor biosynthetic process, protein tetramerization, retina development in camera-type eye
TRINITY_DN54279_c0_g1_i2	isoform only	<i>SCAP</i>	Golgi membrane, endoplasmic reticulum membrane, ER to Golgi transport vesicle membrane, integral component of membrane, cholesterol binding, cholesterol metabolic process, SREBP signaling pathway
TRINITY_DN49167_c0_g1_i4	isoform only	<i>MRPS25</i>	mitochondrial inner membrane, ribosome, structural constituent of ribosome, mitochondrial translational elongation, mitochondrial translational termination

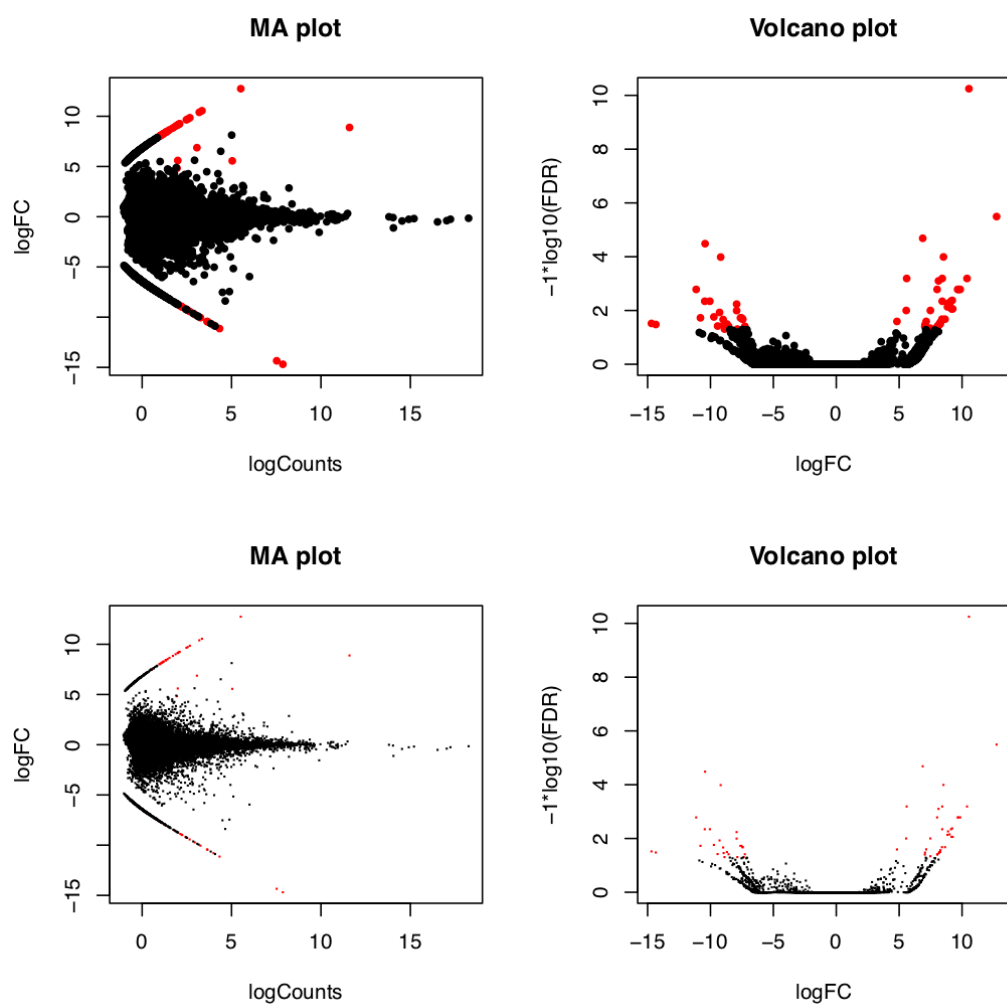


Fig. 4.1. MDS and volcano plot for differentially expressed isoforms between species. DEIs are indicated in red, and are significant with a FDR < 0.05.

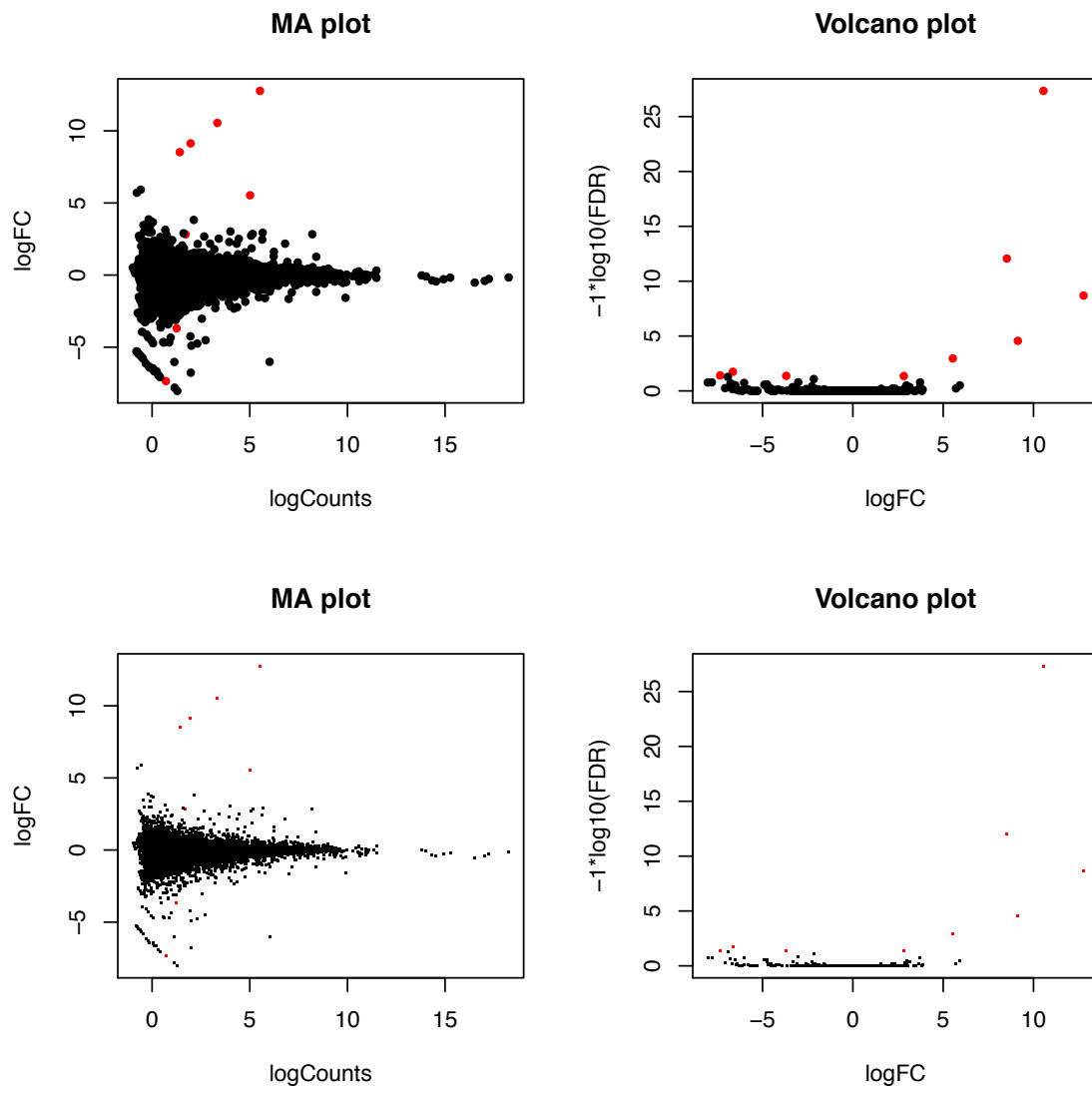


Fig. 4.2. MDS and volcano plot for differentially expressed genes between species. DEGs are indicated in red, and are significant with a $FDR < 0.05$.

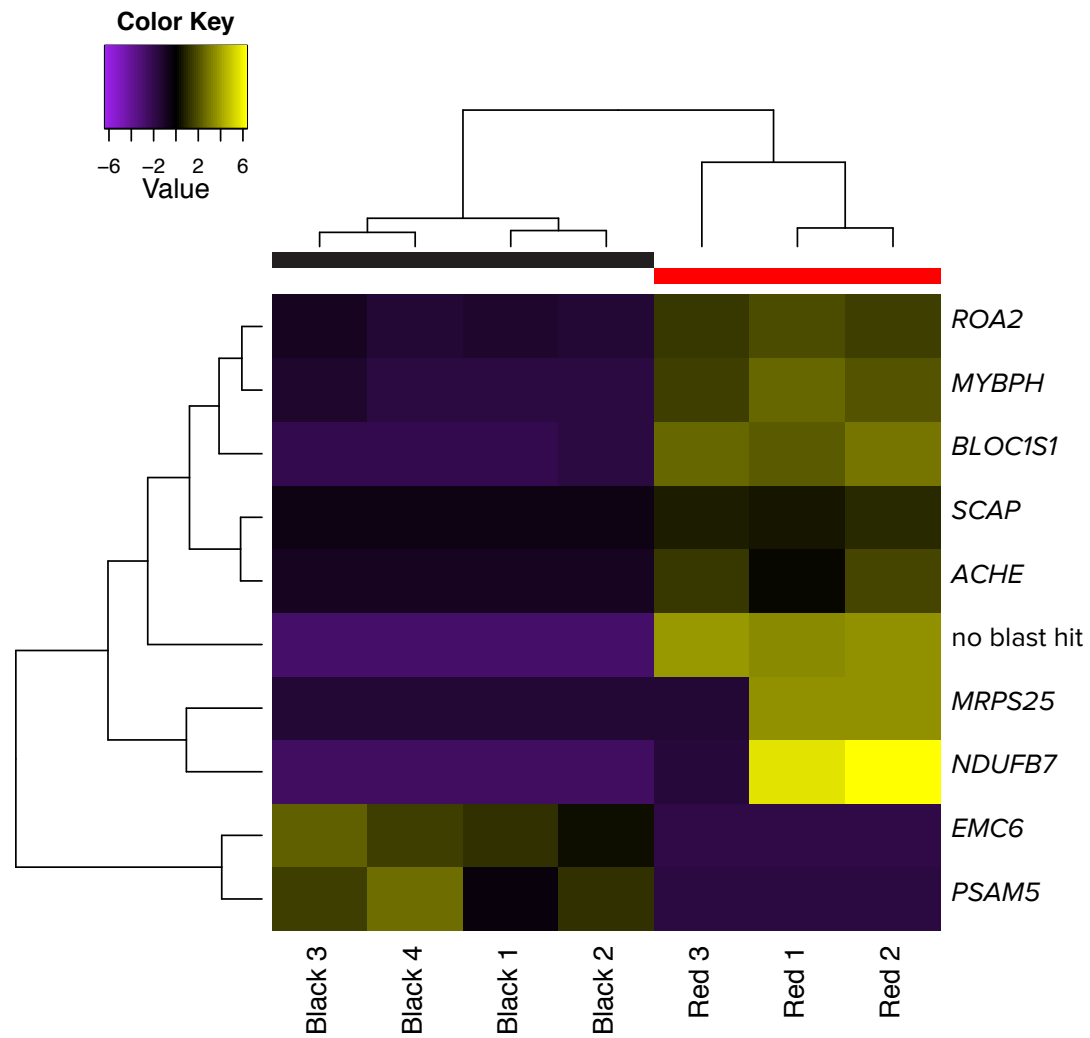


Fig. 4.3. Heat map of 4 differentially expressed isoforms between *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*. DEIs are filtered for $FDR > 0.05$, p -values < 0.001 and a log fold change > 4 .

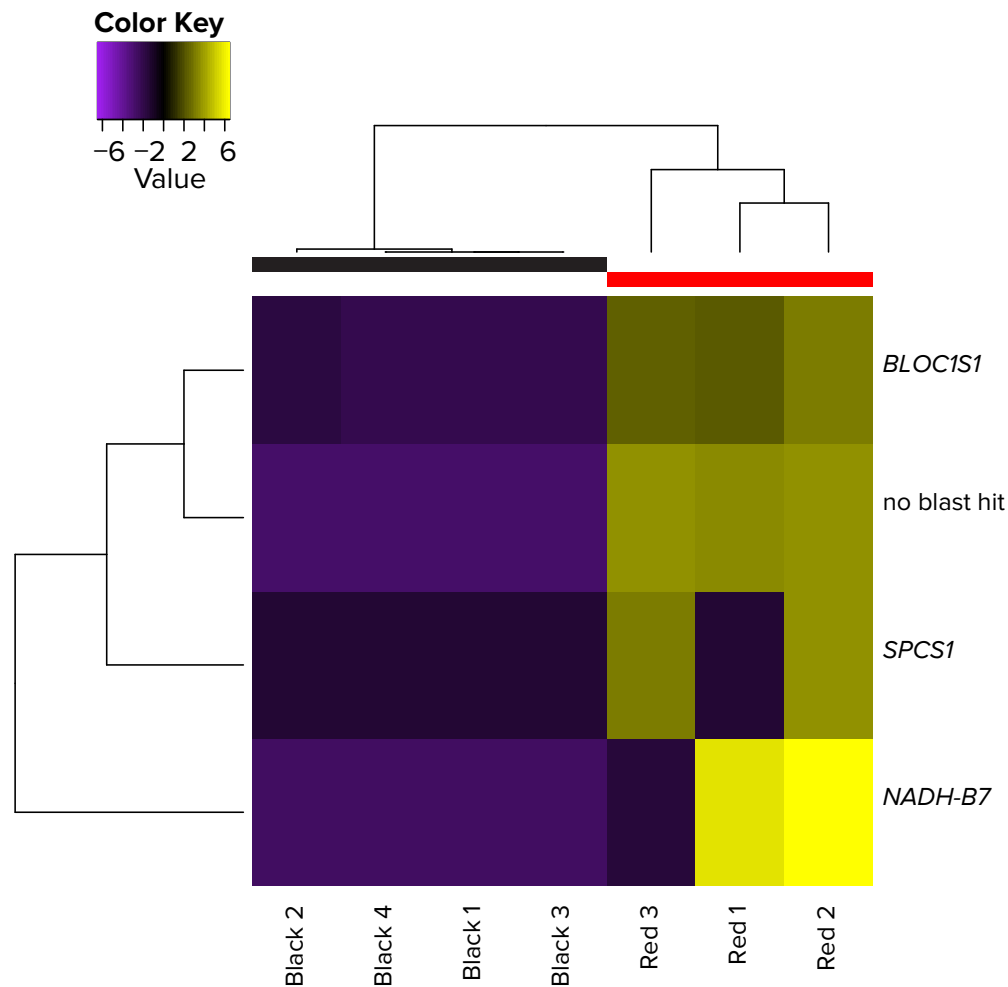


Fig. 4.4. Heat map of differentially expressed genes between *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*. DEGs are filtered for FDR > 0.05, p -values < 0.001 and a log fold change > 4.

SNP analysis:

The PCA of the 155,827 SNPs showed weak but detectable separation in ordinate space between *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus* along the first PC axis (Fig. 4.5). The percent variation explained for the first PC is 18% and is 17% for the second PC. The *find.clusters* function was not able to correctly assign species labels to all individuals. However, a DAPC using apriori definitions showed high discrimination ability between

species (Fig. 4.6), and 100% or nearly 100% assignments to one or the other genetic cluster (Fig. 4.7).

The Bayescan analysis showed little evidence for positive or diversifying selection; no significant F_{ST} outliers were identified (Fig. 4.5). The F_{ST} coefficient with the highest probability density interval for *T. scitulus* was 0.020 [0.0181, 0.023], and for *T. polytmus* was 0.22 [0.02, 0.025] (Fig. S4.6).

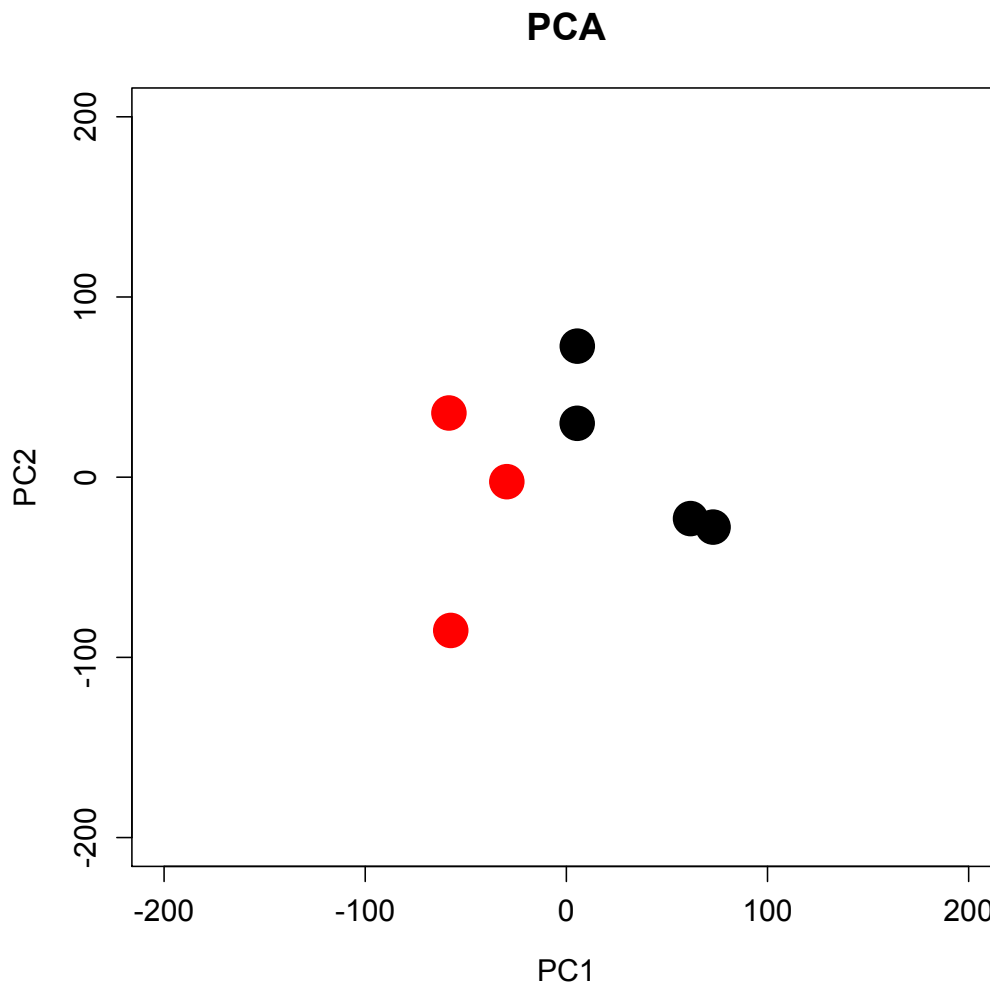


Fig. 4.5. PCA of 155,827 bi-allelic SNPs. *Trochilus polytmus* individuals (n =3) are indicated in red, and *T. scitulus* individuals (n = 4) are indicated in black.

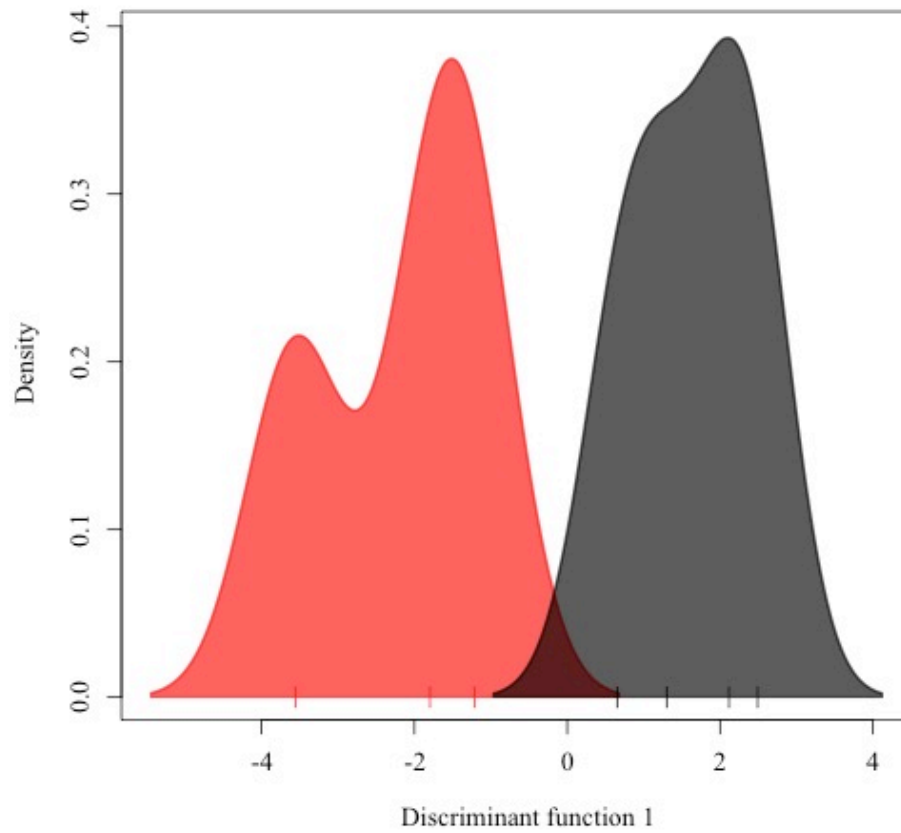


Fig. 4.6. Densities plot of the discriminant function. Red indicates the position of red-billed individuals, and black indicates the position of black-billed individuals along the first discriminant function.

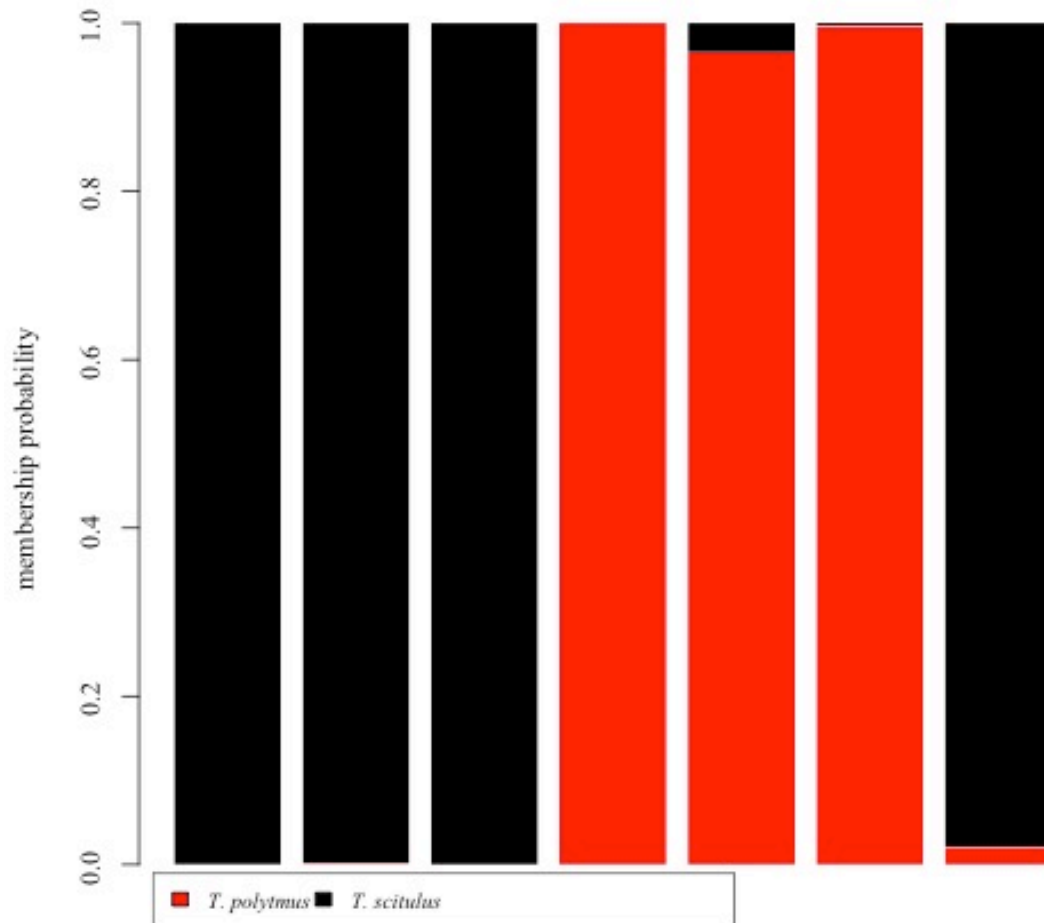


Fig. 4.7. Composition plot reflecting membership probability to the two genetic clusters corresponding to species.

DISCUSSION

This study characterized gene expression divergence and nucleotide sequence divergence across the coding genomes of *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*, with an eye toward identifying candidate genes that underpin male bill color, a secondary sexual ornament that may be a melanin-based trait. Significant gene expression differences were found in four genes. Intriguingly, one of the differentially expressed genes (*BLOC-ISI*) is part of a gene complex (biogenesis of lysosome-related organelles complex, *BLOC*) that is associated with reduced pigmentation disorders in mice (discussed below). However, the function of *BLOC-1* is not well studied in birds. Nucleotide sequence variation in a

panel of SNPs revealed only modest differentiation between species and little, if any, evidence for positive selection. Below I discuss these results in more detail.

Transcriptome assembly and annotation

The total number of mapped genes (11,847) represents approximately two-thirds of the total number of known protein coding genes in other avian reference genomes (e.g. zebra finch, 17,475 protein-coding genes; Warren et al. 2010). The contig statistics including the N50 (814 bp) and ExN50 (1,587 bp) indicate that the overall quality of the transcriptome was good. However, the low number of recovered full-length genes ($n = 7,426$) and relatively low proportion of proper pairs per library ($< 70\%$ in six of seven libraries) indicate that the assembly is fragmented or that coverage was insufficient to fully sequence coding genes (discussed below).

Fragmentation can result from degradation of RNA in the tissue sample prior to stabilization. Degradation increases with increasing PMI in field-based collection of avian tissues (Cheviron et al. 2011). Interestingly, the one sample (CDJ 238) that was excluded from the study due to poor library quality had the longest PMI of all the samples (10 minutes), and correspondingly, the lowest yield of mRNA (14 ng). Thus, it appears this sample may have been more heavily affected by degradation than the other samples. The loss of this sample is unfortunate but serves as a good benchmark for future ornithological expeditions and field-based investigations. As a general rule of thumb, tissues should be extracted and stabilized in less than 10 minutes, and preferably in less than 5 minutes. Therefore, it is possible to collect RNA-quality tissue while processing a bird as a museum skin, but efficiency of the preparator is important.

The ExN50 statistics indicate that a small number of transcripts were extremely abundant: four transcripts account for over 50% of the total expression. Two of these four mapped to ribosomal RNA (rRNA) molecules, and the other two mapped to mtDNA molecules. Thus, it appears that the libraries contained some rRNA contamination, despite using an mRNA-specific extraction protocol. Contamination by other highly abundant species of RNA, such as rRNA, is a known issue for the mRNA DIRECT protocol (Invitrogen). The final temperature-dependent step is a goldilocks point, with lower temperatures having more specificity to mRNA targets, and higher temperatures resulting in a higher yield of eluted mRNA. While rRNA contamination is undesirable because it takes sequencing reads away from the target mRNA reads, it is also unlikely to bias the downstream differential expression analysis, since the TMM normalization step should compensate for these extreme values (Brian Haas, Broad Institute, pers. comm.). In this study, however, it may have significantly reduced the number of recovered genes. Additional sequencing of the same libraries may prove useful in terms of recovering additional genes.

Gene expression profiling

Overall, gene expression profiles were extremely similar between the two species of *Trochilus*, supporting the hypothesis that expression levels of most genes evolve under stabilizing selection (Gilad et al. 2006). Only 4 genes and 10 isoforms were differentially expressed. One of the four differentially expressed genes identified, *BLOC-1S1*, is included in the list of 95 candidate pigmentation genes identified by Poelstra et al. (2013), but is otherwise obscure in the literature for vertebrate pigmentation. For

example, it is not mentioned in major reviews of vertebrate pigmentation (Mundy 2005; Hoekstra 2006; Hubbard et al. 2010; Galván and Solano 2016).

BLOC-1S1, a component of the ubiquitously expressed ‘*BLOC-1*’ or biogenesis of lysosome-related organelles complex (Falcon-Perez et al. 2002), is a 200 kDa ubiquitously expressed protein complex containing proteins encoded by *BLOC-1S1* and at least seven other genes: *DTNBPI*, *Muted*, *Pallidin*, *Cappuccino*, *Snapin*, *BLOC-1S2*, and *BLOC-1S3* (Falcon-Perez et al. 2002; Starcevic and Dell’Angelica 2004; Morris et al. 2008). *BLOC-1* is required for normal biogenesis of specialized organelles such as melanosomes and platelet dense granules (Starcevic and Dell’Angelica 2004). The genes that encode these proteins are defective in mouse strains that serve as models of Hermansky-Pudlak Syndrome (HPS), a genetic disorder characterized by hypopigmentation and platelet storage pool deficiency (Starcevic and Dell’Angelica 2004). *BLOC*-complex genes also have associations with schizophrenia (Morris et al. 2008). The normal protein levels for *BLOC-1* are reduced in pallid mice, which have a mutation in *Pallidin* and an associated missense mutation in *BLOC-3* (Starcevic and Dell’Angelica 2004). Additionally, *BLOC-1* has known physical and functional interactions with *AP-3*. Biochemical, genetic, and functional data are consistent with a model in which *BLOC-1* functions with *AP-3* and *BLOC-2* in trafficking of *TYRP1* from endosomes to melanosomes (Di Pietro et al. 2006).

BLOC-1S1 is upregulated in *T. polytmus* and downregulated in *T. scitulus*. While assuming a causal link between differential expression in this gene and divergence in bill color is purely speculative, the fact that one of four differentially expressed genes is a candidate pigmentation gene is noteworthy. In the *de novo* transcriptome, 12 Trinity

“genes”, each with a single isoform, were annotated as BLOC-1S1. Of these only one “gene” was differentially expressed. The high number of trinity genes (versus isoforms) is interesting and may reflect a need for better coverage at this gene to better resolve the sequence variants.

SNP analysis

The PCA of the RNAseq panel of 155,827 high-quality SNPs showed only modest separation in ordinate space between *Trochilus polytmus* and *T. scitulus*, indicating low sequence divergence across the coding genomes, on par with levels reported from a previous population genetic analysis of a RADseq dataset (Chapter 3). Such low divergence is likely due to the young age of the lineages and ongoing hybridization, the latter of which is expected to obscure or erase the signal for divergence at neutral loci. Evidence for hybridization in *Trochilus* has been documented by the presence of morphological hybrids (Gill et al. 1973; Graves 2009, 2015) and signatures of genetic admixture in hybrid zone populations (Chapter 3). The between-species component of genetic variation was significant, however, and a DAPC was able to discriminate the species fairly well.

I performed an F_{ST} outlier analysis in Bayescan to identify genetic variants that may be associated with the bill color differences. Because of the diagnostic differences in plumage, and low background levels of genetic differentiation, loci linked to causal variants should be easily detectable as differentiation outliers (Poelstra et al. 2013). However, the estimate of F_{ST} coefficients in Bayescan for both *T. polytmus* ($F_{ST} = 0.22$) and *T. scitulus* ($F_{ST} = 0.20$) were low, and Bayescan did not detect any outliers among the 121,092 biallelic SNPs tested. Additional analyses performed under a lower prior odds

setting (100 vs. 1,000) did not return any outliers. The lack of outliers in both analyses could be due to a lack of statistical power. However, the use of a loci-specific FDR to determine significance is more powerful than using a family-wide correction such as Bonferroni corrections in testing multiple comparisons (Foll et al. 2010). More likely, strongly differentiated loci that show clear signatures of selection may not have been captured by this transcriptomics study.

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CHAPTER 5.

DISCUSSION

My survey of the black-billed streamertail (*Trochilus scitulus*) confirms that this species is abundant within its range (Chapter 2). Population density has interesting implications for hybrid zone dynamics. If the streamertail hybrid zone is a tension zone maintained by selection-dispersal balance (discussed below), in theory it should be able to move toward geographical regions of low density and dispersal (Barton 1979; Barton and Hewitt 1985). *Trochilus polytmus* are known to be among the most abundant birds on the island of Jamaica (Bond 1936, 1956). If *T. scitulus* had a much lower population density relative to *T. polytmus*, the hybrid zone would be predicted to move eastward, potentially threatening the integrity of *T. polytmus* as a distinct morpho-group. Chapter 2 confirms that the black-billed streamertail population has similarly high densities as its red-billed congener, one factor that might help contribute to the zone's spatial stability over at least 50 generations (Gill et al. 1973; MacColl and Lewis 2000, Judy 2018).

In Chapter 3, I report the first comprehensive study of the morphological and genetic structure of the *Trochilus* hybrid zone. Despite a lack of signal for neutral genomic divergence, I found extremely narrow clines in two morphological traits: bill width and bill color. The cline for male bill color (2.2km) is among the narrowest reported from an avian hybrid zone. While the limited number of divergent traits (morphological and genetic) makes it difficult to diagnose the class of hybrid zone, and thereby infer the type of selection maintaining it, I was able to rule out neutrality as a plausible explanation for cline patterns.

The exceptionally narrow cline for bill color, a secondary sexual character, appears to be under strong selection. Given that it is a sexually selected trait, sexual selection likely plays a prominent role in driving initial speciation in this case.

In Chapter 4, I used a transcriptomics approach to further characterize the genomes and look for genes that may underpin the divergent bill color trait. To do this, I assembled a *de novo* transcriptome and annotated it using blast searches against NCBI's non-redundant protein database and a custom database that I built based on relevant gene ontology terms and searches in the pigmentation gene literature. I performed mapping and annotation using Blast2Go. I used alignments of individual libraries to the *de novo* transcriptome to make comparisons between species regarding significant differences in the expression of each gene. I found that the two species are similar in their expression profiles, which likely reflects the young age of the lineages. The lack of expression divergence could also signal stabilizing selection, but I cannot readily assess this hypothesis under such short evolutionary timescales. However, strong differences (greater than four-fold log differences) were significantly different in four genes.

One of these genes, *BLOC-ISI*, is a known pigmentation gene. Proteins associated with this and other genes in the *BLOC*-complex are ubiquitously expressed across tissue types. Mutations and abnormal function of the *BLOC*-complex are associated with hypopigmentation in laboratory strains of inbred mice that are models for Hermansky-Pudlak syndrome (Di Pietro et al. 2006). The role of *BLOC-ISI* in avian pigmentation is not well studied; however, it is mentioned in an exhaustive candidate gene search that supported studies of plumage polymorphism between hooded and

carrion crows (Poelstra et al. 2014). Its potential role in affecting expression of bill pigmentation in *Trochilus* warrants further investigation.

I also identified SNPs from the raw RNAseq reads using the GATK pipeline. A principal components analysis of the entire SNP dataset revealed modest but detectable divergence between the species, similar to the Radseq dataset in Chapter 3. A Bayesian F_{ST} outlier analysis detected no outliers and returned little evidence for positive selection. Thus, regions of strong genomic divergence are few (or absent) and may be in regulatory regions that were not captured by this study.

In sum, I characterized the morphological and genetic patterns of divergence between incipient species of streamertail hummingbirds using population genetic techniques and cline models. I was also able to sequence the coding genomes of these incipient species, to get a handle on the genetic basis of divergence and look for candidate genes to explain bill color, which appears to be a melanin-based trait. The results from the genetic datasets (microsatellites, RadSeq SNPs, RNA-seq SNPs) confirm low background levels of genomic divergence between these species. However, the hybrid zone between them appears to be stable, and the two morphological traits are concordant and narrow relative to neutral expectations. All cline models coincide with the Rio Grande Valley, which may represent a dispersal barrier for these birds. While distinguishing between primary and secondary intergradation is challenging at this shallow time scale, it seems likely that the zone is maintained in selection-dispersal balance, as are the majority of vertebrate hybrid zones. If so, strong selection against hybrid male bill color, a sexual ornament, may be what primarily maintains the zone.

This study provides an important genomic snapshot of early-stage speciation in a non-model bird.

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APPENDIX A.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 3

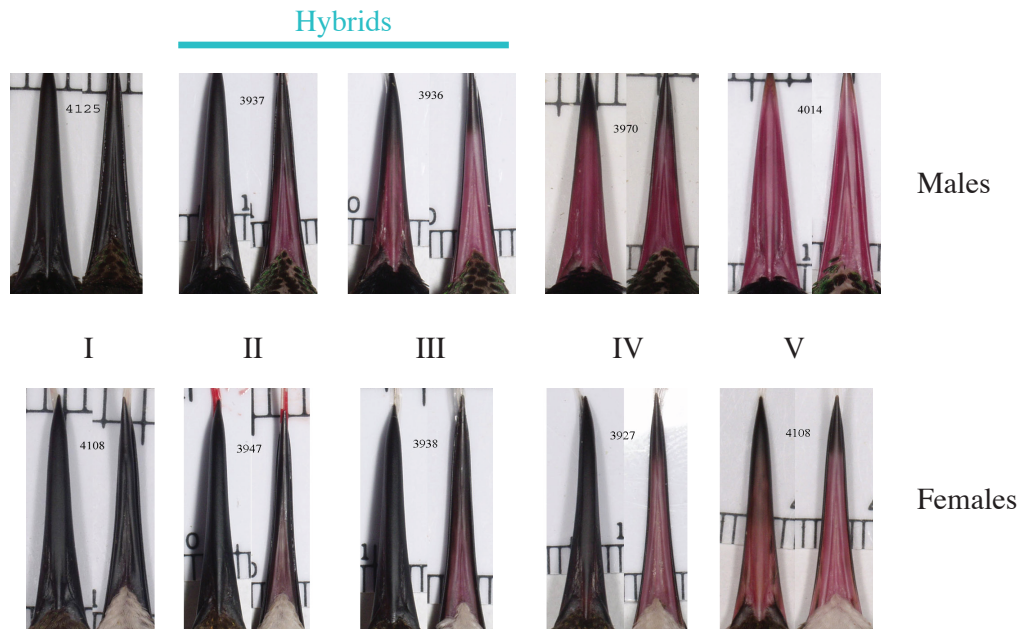


Fig. S3.1. Hybrid index (Graves 2015) to classify adult *T. scitulus* (I), hybrid (II, III), and *T. polytmus* (IV,V) individuals. Dorsal (left) and ventral (right) views in each pair of images.

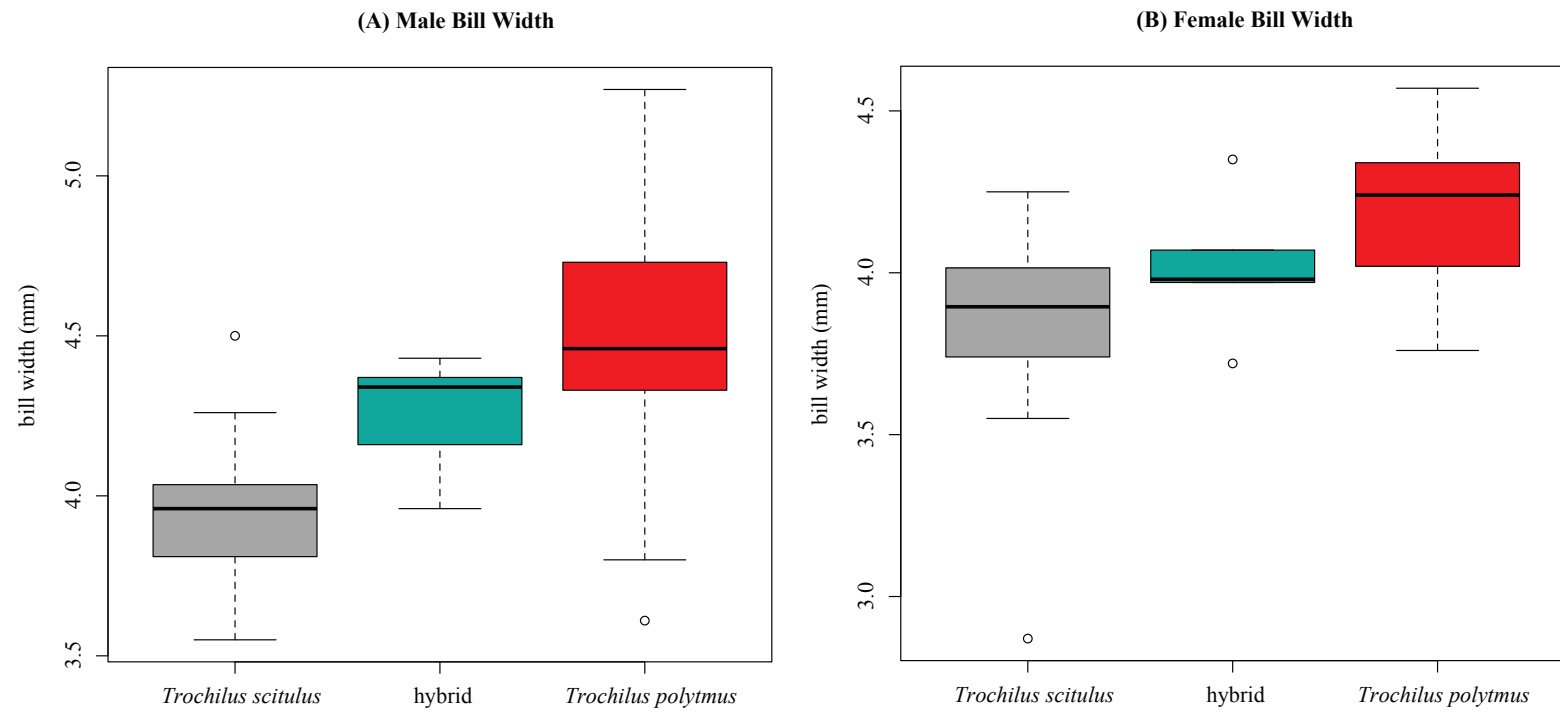


Fig. S3.2. Male (A) and female (B) bill width in *T. scitulus*, hybrid, and *T. polytmus* individuals.

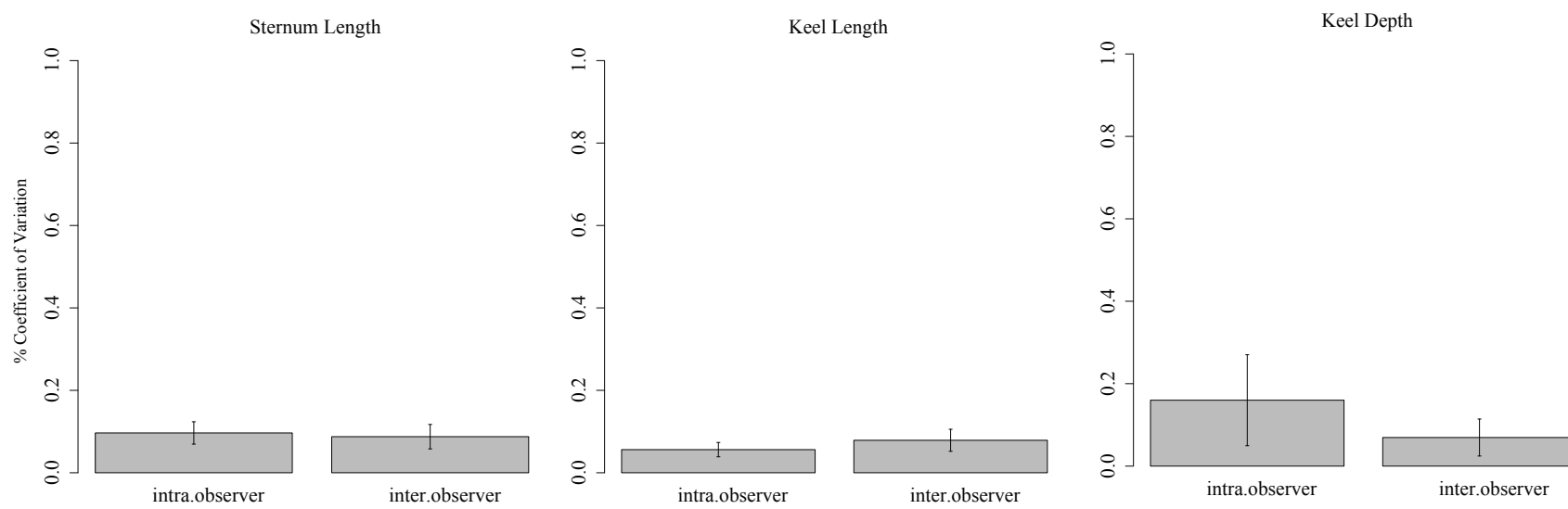


Fig. S3.3. Coefficient of variation within and between observers in three skeletal elements: sternum length, keel length, and keel depth. Substantial observer bias was not detected in these characters.

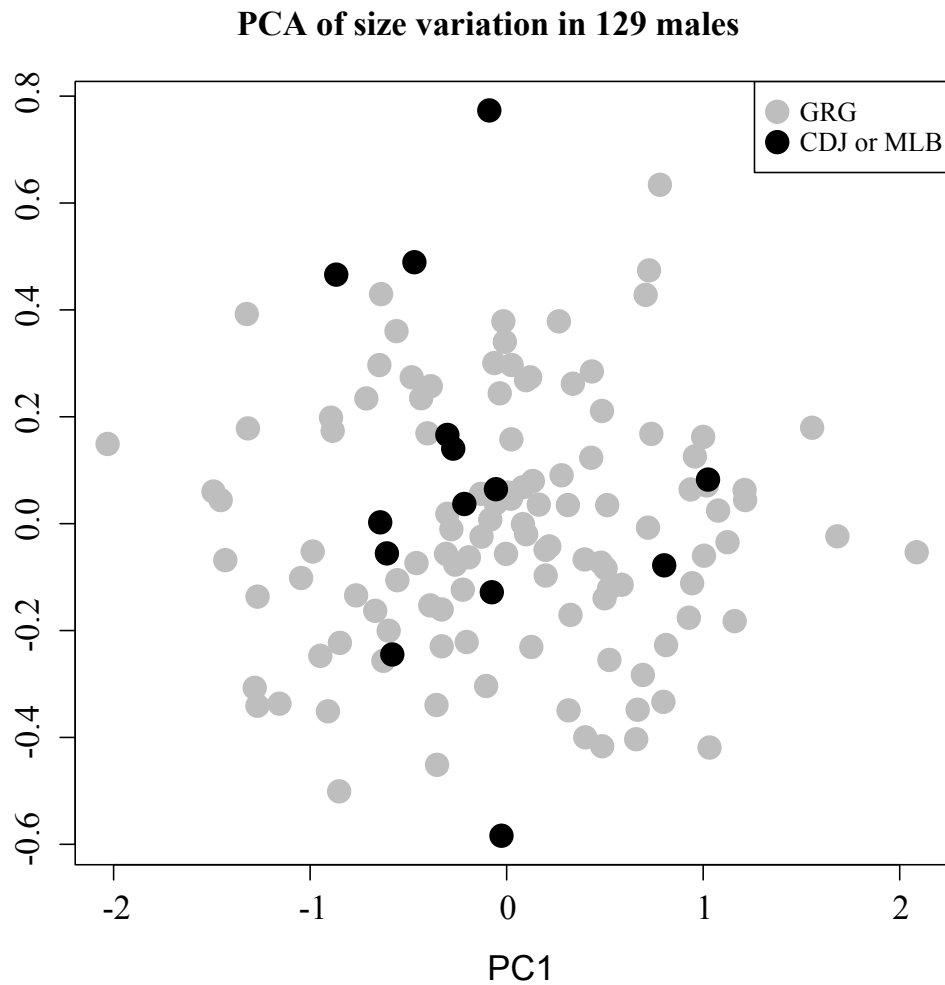


Fig. S3.4. PCA of size variation in 129 males for seven measured skeletal elements (three of the seven elements were used in the current study: sternum length, keel length, and keel depth). I measured the individuals labeled with black points, which were collected by CDJ or MLB, and GRG measured the individuals labeled with gray points that he collected. No artificial grouping was detected in the PCA.

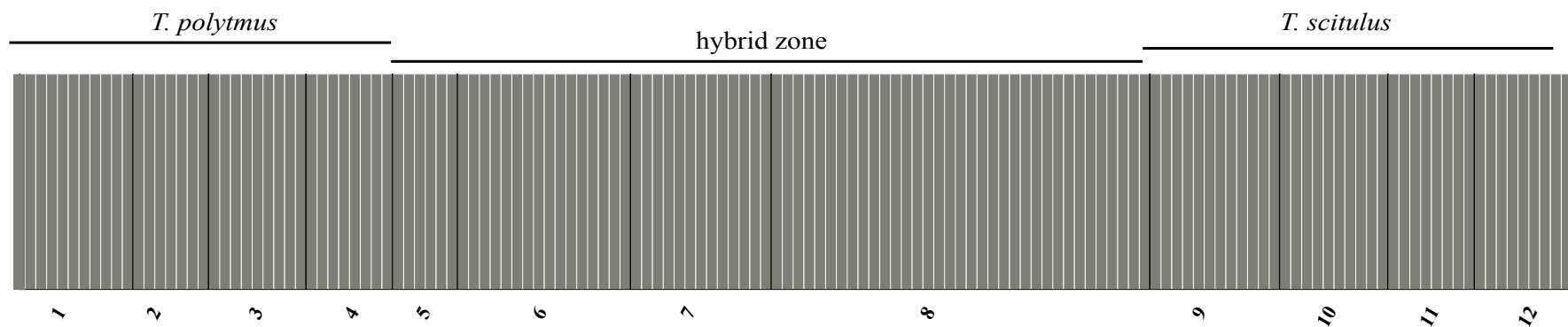


Fig. S3.5. Admixture proportions assigned by FASTSTRUCTURE based on $K = 2$ for 6,451 SNPs in 145 individuals of *T. polytmus*, *T. scitulus*, and their hybrids in 12 sites. All individuals showed nearly 100% assignment to a single genetic cluster.

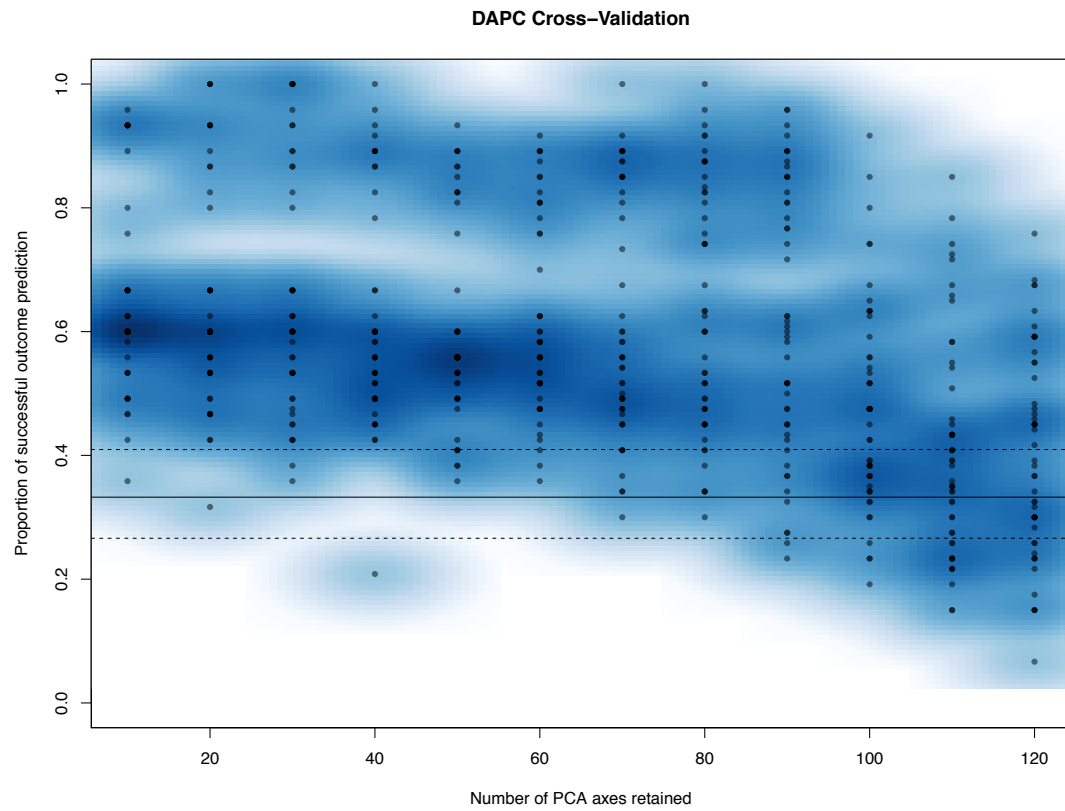
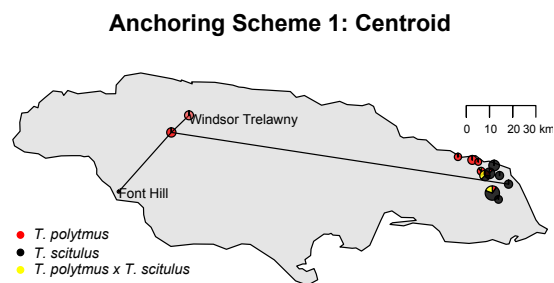


Fig. S3.6. Cross-validation optimization procedure results for 30 repetitions. The lowest RMSE is associated with 30 retained PCs.



(Eastern localities only)

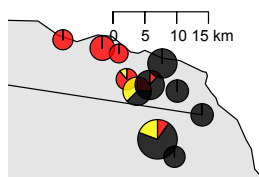
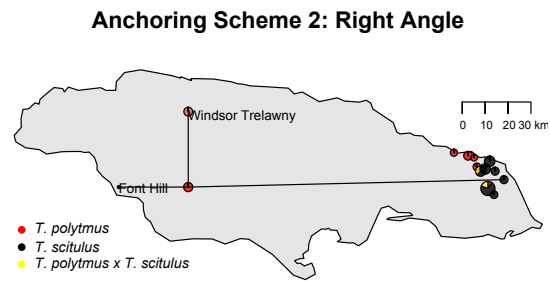


Fig. S3.8 A. The ‘Centroid’ anchor is the average latitudinal and longitudinal coordinate among all sampled individuals grouped into Site 1. These individuals are pooled from two localities: Windsor Trelawney (n=7) and Font Hill (n=3).



(Eastern localities only)

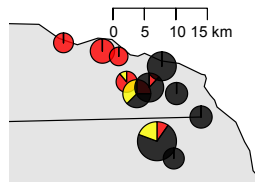
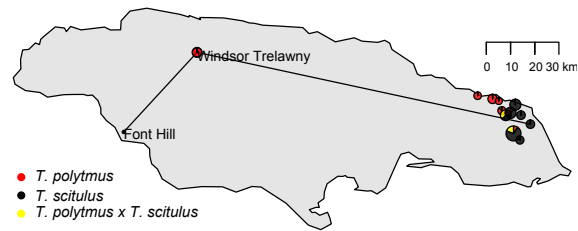


Fig. S3.8 B. The ‘Right Angle’ anchor is a geographic locality that forms a right angle between Site 1 localities of Windsor Trelawney (n=7) and Font Hill (n=3).

Anchoring Scheme 3: Windsor Trelawny



(Eastern localities only)

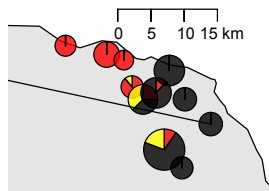


Fig. S3.8 C. The ‘Windsor Trelawny’ anchor is on the Site 1 locality Windsor Trelawney where the majority of Site 1 individuals were collected.

Table S3.1. Specimen information for all specimens used in this study. Preparators: Gary R. Graves = GRG, Caroline D. Judy = CDJ, and Matthew L. Brady = MLB. North, West = geographical coordinates of sites. Species: *Trochilus polytmus* = 1, *Trochilus scitulus* = 2, and phenotypic hybrids = 3. Sex: Female = F, Male = M. Bill striations = N.A. for specimens where poor photo quality rendered bill striations difficult to evaluate with certainty. All other columns: Y = Specimen was used in the specified analysis.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4117	NMNH	635693	GRG	18.058	-77.940	Dec-05	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4119	NMNH	635695	GRG	18.062	-77.940	Dec-05	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4159	NMNH	636171	GRG	18.359	-77.659	Mar-06	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_236	LSUMNS	29498	CDJ	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	F		Y	Y			
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_237	LSUMNS	29499	CDJ	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	F	Y					
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_240	IOJ	29505	CDJ	18.358	-77.643	Dec-14	1	F	NA					
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_241	LSUMNS	29507	CDJ	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	F		Y	Y			
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	MLB_363	LSUMNS	29500	MLB	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	F		Y	Y	Y		
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	MLB_364	LSUMNS	29501	MLB	18.358	-77.643	Dec-14	1	F	Y					
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4118	NMNH	635694	GRG	18.062	-77.940	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4157	NMNH	636169	GRG	18.364	-77.666	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4158	NMNH	636170	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4160	NMNH	636172	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4161	NMNH	636173	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4162	NMNH	636174	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4163	NMNH	636175	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4164	NMNH	636176	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4165	NMNH	636177	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4166	NMNH	636178	GRG	18.359	-77.660	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_238	LSUMNS	29502	CDJ	18.358	77.643	Dec-14	1	M						
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_239	LSUMNS	29504	CDJ	18.354	77.647	Dec-14	1	M						
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	CVD_242	LSUMNS	29510	CDJ	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	M	NA					
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	MLB_365	IOJ	29503	MLB	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	M	NA					
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	MLB_366	LSUMNS	29506	MLB	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	M		Y	Y	Y		
1	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	MLB_367	LSUMNS	29508	MLB	18.354	-77.647	Dec-14	1	M						
2	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4008	NMNH	633622	GRG	18.195	-76.554	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	ref. <i>T. polytmus</i>	4009	NMNH	633623	GRG	18.195	-76.555	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4013	NMNH	633627	GRG	18.195	-76.554	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4007	NMNH	633621	GRG	18.195	-76.554	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4010	NMNH	633624	GRG	18.196	-76.553	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4011	NMNH	633625	GRG	18.196	-76.554	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4012	NMNH	633626	GRG	18.196	-76.553	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
2	<i>ref. T. polytmus</i>	4014	NMNH	633628	GRG	18.196	-76.555	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4005	NMNH	633619	GRG	18.178	-76.499	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4006	NMNH	633620	GRG	18.179	-76.497	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4130	NMNH	636142	GRG	18.185	-76.496	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4131	NMNH	636143	GRG	18.184	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4132	NMNH	636144	GRG	18.184	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4133	NMNH	636145	GRG	18.185	-76.496	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4134	NMNH	636146	GRG	18.185	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4135	NMNH	636147	GRG	18.185	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4136	NMNH	636148	GRG	18.184	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4137	NMNH	636149	GRG	18.184	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4138	NMNH	636150	GRG	18.185	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
3	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4139	NMNH	636151	GRG	18.185	-76.495	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4140	NMNH	636152	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	3	M	Y				Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4141	NMNH	636153	GRG	18.176	-76.472	Mar-06	3	M	Y				Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4142	NMNH	636154	GRG	18.176	-76.472	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4143	NMNH	636155	GRG	18.176	-76.472	Mar-06	3	M	Y				Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4144	NMNH	636156	GRG	18.176	-76.472	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4145	NMNH	636157	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4146	NMNH	636158	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4147	NMNH	636159	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4148	NMNH	636160	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
4	<i>T. polytmus</i>	4149	NMNH	636161	GRG	18.176	-76.471	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5	hybrid zone	4105	NMNH	635681	GRG	18.140	-76.460	Dec-05	3	F		Y	Y		Y	Y
5	hybrid zone	4106	NMNH	635682	GRG	18.139	-76.459	Dec-05	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
5	hybrid zone	4108	NMNH	635684	GRG	18.140	-76.459	Dec-05	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5	hybrid zone	4109	NMNH	635685	GRG	18.140	-76.459	Dec-05	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5	hybrid zone	4102	NMNH	635678	GRG	18.140	-76.460	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
5	hybrid zone	4103	NMNH	635679	GRG	18.140	-76.460	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
5	hybrid zone	4104	NMNH	635680	GRG	18.140	-76.460	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
5	hybrid zone	4107	NMNH	635683	GRG	18.139	-76.459	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
5	hybrid zone	4110	NMNH	635686	GRG	18.140	-76.459	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3935	NMNH	633549	GRG	18.110	-76.447	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3938	NMNH	633552	GRG	18.110	-76.448	Nov-03	3	F		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3939	NMNH	633553	GRG	18.110	-76.447	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3971	NMNH	633585	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3972	NMNH	633586	GRG	18.131	-76.443	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3973	NMNH	633587	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Feb-04	3	F		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3974	NMNH	633588	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Feb-04	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	4095	NMNH	635671	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Dec-05	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
6	hybrid zone	4096	NMNH	635672	GRG	18.131	-76.443	Dec-05	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	4097	NMNH	635673	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Dec-05	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	CVD_251	LSUMNS	29525	CDJ	18.137	76.438	Dec-14	3	F	Y					
6	hybrid zone	MLB_375	LSUMNS	29526	MLB	18.137	76.438	Dec-14	2	F						
6	hybrid zone	3936	NMNH	633550	GRG	18.110	-76.447	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3937	NMNH	633551	GRG	18.110	-76.447	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3941	NMNH	633555	GRG	18.110	-76.447	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	3970	NMNH	633584	GRG	18.131	-76.442	Feb-04	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	4098	NMNH	635674	GRG	18.131	-76.443	Dec-05	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	4099	NMNH	635675	GRG	18.131	-76.443	Dec-05	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
6	hybrid zone	CVD_250	LSUMNS	29522	CDJ	18.137	-76.438	Dec-14	3	M						
6	hybrid zone	CVD_252	LSUMNS	29527	CDJ	18.137	-76.438	Dec-14	1	M		Y	Y	Y		
6	hybrid zone	MLB_373	LSUMNS	29523	MLB	18.137	-76.438	Dec-14	2	M						
6	hybrid zone	MLB_374	LSUMNS	20524	MLB	18.137	-76.438	Dec-14	3	M						
7	hybrid zone	3975	NMNH	633589	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
7	hybrid zone	3976	NMNH	633590	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	
7	hybrid zone	3981	NMNH	633595	GRG	18.124	-76.421	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3982	NMNH	633596	GRG	18.123	-76.421	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3983	NMNH	633597	GRG	18.123	-76.421	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3984	NMNH	633598	GRG	18.123	-76.421	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3985	NMNH	633599	GRG	18.126	-76.420	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3977	NMNH	633591	GRG	18.136	-76.429	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
7	hybrid zone	3978	NMNH	633592	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3979	NMNH	633593	GRG	18.136	-76.429	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	3980	NMNH	633594	GRG	18.136	-76.429	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	4100	NMNH	635676	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
7	hybrid zone	4101	NMNH	635677	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
7	hybrid zone	4153	NMNH	636165	GRG	18.126	-76.420	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	4154	NMNH	636166	GRG	18.125	-76.421	Mar-06	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
7	hybrid zone	4155	NMNH	636167	GRG	18.136	-76.429	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
7	hybrid zone	4156	NMNH	636168	GRG	18.137	-76.429	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3925	NMNH	633539	GRG	18.062	-76.418	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3927	NMNH	633541	GRG	18.062	-76.419	Nov-03	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3929	IOJ	NA	GRG	18.062	-76.418	Nov-03	2	F					Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3932	NMNH	633546	GRG	18.046	-76.403	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3934	NMNH	633548	GRG	18.044	-76.404	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3944	NMNH	633558	GRG	18.064	-76.426	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3945	NMNH	633559	GRG	18.064	-76.426	Nov-03	3	F		Y	Y		Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3947	NMNH	633561	GRG	18.064	-76.426	Nov-03	3	F		Y	Y		Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3953	NMNH	633567	GRG	18.068	-76.423	Nov-03	1	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3955	NMNH	633569	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3957	NMNH	633571	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3924	NMNH	633538	GRG	18.062	-76.419	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3926	NMNH	633540	GRG	18.045	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3928	NMNH	633542	GRG	18.062	-76.418	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
8	hybrid zone	3930	NMNH	633544	GRG	18.044	-76.404	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3931	NMNH	633545	GRG	18.045	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3933	NMNH	633547	GRG	18.046	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3940	NMNH	633554	GRG	18.046	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3942	NMNH	633556	GRG	18.045	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3943	NMNH	633557	GRG	18.046	-76.403	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3946	NMNH	633560	GRG	18.064	-76.426	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3948	NMNH	633562	GRG	18.064	-76.426	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3949	NMNH	633563	GRG	18.063	-76.425	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
8	hybrid zone	3950	NMNH	633564	GRG	18.063	-76.425	Nov-03	1	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3951	NMNH	633565	GRG	18.068	-76.432	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	
8	hybrid zone	3952	NMNH	633566	GRG	18.068	-76.423	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3954	NMNH	633568	GRG	18.069	-76.432	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3956	NMNH	633570	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3958	NMNH	633572	GRG	18.050	-76.407	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
8	hybrid zone	3959	NMNH	633573	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3960	NMNH	633574	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3961	NMNH	633575	GRG	18.050	-76.407	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3962	NMNH	633576	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3963	NMNH	633577	GRG	18.050	-76.407	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3964	NMNH	633578	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
8	hybrid zone	3965	NMNH	633579	GRG	18.050	-76.407	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3966	NMNH	633580	GRG	18.050	-76.407	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3967	NMNH	633581	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	3	M		Y	Y		Y	Y
8	hybrid zone	3968	NMNH	633582	GRG	18.050	-76.409	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4000	NMNH	633614	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4002	NMNH	633616	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4112	NMNH	635688	GRG	18.154	-76.418	Dec-05	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4113	NMNH	635689	GRG	18.154	-76.418	Dec-05	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	3996	NMNH	633610	GRG	18.168	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	3997	NMNH	633611	GRG	18.168	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	3998	NMNH	633612	GRG	18.168	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	3999	NMNH	633613	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4001	NMNH	633615	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4003	NMNH	633617	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4004	NMNH	633618	GRG	18.169	-76.396	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4111	NMNH	635687	GRG	18.154	-76.419	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4114	NMNH	635690	GRG	18.155	-76.419	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4115	NMNH	635691	GRG	18.155	-76.418	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4116	NMNH	635692	GRG	18.154	-76.418	Dec-05	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4150	NMNH	636162	GRG	18.154	-76.418	Mar-06	2	M	Y				Y	Y
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4151	NMNH	636163	GRG	18.155	-76.418	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
9	<i>T. scitulus</i>	4152	NMNH	636164	GRG	18.154	-76.419	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y		Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3914	NMNH	633528	GRG	18.029	-76.389	Oct-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3915	NMNH	633529	GRG	18.029	-76.389	Oct-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3918	NMNH	633532	GRG	18.034	-76.390	Oct-03	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3916	NMNH	633530	GRG	18.030	-76.388	Oct-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3917	NMNH	633531	GRG	18.034	-76.390	Oct-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3919	NMNH	633533	GRG	18.030	-76.388	Oct-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3920	NMNH	633534	GRG	18.030	-76.388	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3921	NMNH	633535	GRG	18.029	-76.389	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3922	NMNH	633536	GRG	18.030	-76.388	Nov-03	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
10	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3923	NMNH	633537	GRG	18.029	-76.389	Nov-03	2	M	Y				Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3987	NMNH	633601	GRG	18.123	-76.384	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3989	NMNH	633603	GRG	18.124	-76.385	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3990	NMNH	633604	GRG	18.121	-76.384	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3991	NMNH	633605	GRG	18.124	-76.385	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3992	NMNH	633606	GRG	18.122	-76.384	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3993	NMNH	633607	GRG	18.124	-76.385	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3994	NMNH	633608	GRG	18.124	-76.385	Feb-04	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3986	NMNH	633600	GRG	18.121	-76.384	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3988	NMNH	633602	GRG	18.124	-76.385	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
11	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	3995	NMNH	633609	GRG	18.123	-76.384	Feb-04	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4120	NMNH	636132	GRG	18.089	-76.348	Mar-06	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4124	NMNH	636136	GRG	18.089	-76.348	Mar-06	2	F		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_244	LSUMNS	29512	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	F		Y	Y	Y		
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_246	IOJ	29517	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	F	NA					
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	MLB_370	LSUMNS	29515	MLB	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	F						
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	MLB_371	LSUMNS	29516	MLB	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	F						
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	MLB_372	LSUMNS	29520	MLB	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	1	F		Y	Y	Y		
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4121	NMNH	636133	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4122	NMNH	636134	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4123	NMNH	636135	GRG	18.089	-76.348	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4125	NMNH	636137	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4126	NMNH	636138	GRG	18.089	-76.348	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table continued.

Site	Locality Type	Field ID	Museum	Museum ID	Preparator	North	West	Date	Species	Sex	Bill Striations	Bill Color	Bill Width	Body Size	Microsats	GBS
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4127	NMNH	636139	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4128	NMNH	636140	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	4129	NMNH	636141	GRG	18.090	-76.347	Mar-06	2	M		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_245	LSUMNS	29514	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	M						
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_247	LSUMNS	29518	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	M						
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_248	LSUMNS	29519	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	M		Y	Y			
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	CVD_249	LSUMNS	29521	CDJ	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	M		Y	Y	Y		
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	MLB_368	IOJ	29513	MLB	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	2	M	NA					
12	<i>ref. T. scitulus</i>	MLB_369	LSUMNS	29509	MLB	18.108	76.333	Dec-14	1	M		Y	Y	Y		

Table S3.2. HZAR parameter estimates for three different anchoring schemes. The best choice model is indicated next to the name of each anchor scheme.

Parameter	“Windsor” (model I)	“Right” (model IV)	“Centroid” (model I)
center	132.2 (131.6 - 132.7)	130.8 (130.6 - 130.9)	138.4 (137.9 - 138.8)
width	3.33 (2.51 - 4.40)	0.45 (0.17 - 0.60)	3.00 (2.19 - 3.94)
varH	4.71 (2.38 - 11.4)	4.58 (1.97 - 15.0)	4.64 (2.24 - 12.78)
deltaL	n.a	7.89 E-5 (2.30 E-5 - 0.08)	n.a
deltaR	n.a	n.a.	n.a
tauL	n.a	0.73 (0.02 - 0.15)	n.a
tauR	n.a	n.a.	n.a

Table S3.3. Tests of interspecific and intraspecific differences in bill characters. (A) Chi-squared tests for interspecific differences in bill color based on the hybrid index. (B) Analysis of variance for bill width. (C) Post-hoc Tukey Test comparisons to determine which are significant at the 0.05 (*), 0.01 (**), and 0.001 level (***). Comparisons are between 1) male *T. scitulus* and male *T. polytmus*, 2) male and female *T. scitulus*, 3) female *T. scitulus* and female *T. polytmus*, and 4) male and female *T. polytmus*

A.		X ² Test Statistic	Degrees of Freedom	p-value	Significance
Interspecific Male		35	2	2.51 E -8	***
Interspecific Female		22	2	1.67 E -5	***

B.		Degrees of Freedom	Sum Squares	Mean Squares	F	p-value	Significance
Group		3	9.742	3.247	59.78	< 2 E -16	***
Residuals		52	2.825	0.054			

C.		Difference	Lower	Upper	Adj. p-value	Significance
1) Interspecific Male		0.907	0.697	1.117	0.00	***
2) Intraspecific <i>T. polytmus</i>		0.518	0.260	0.775	1.26 E -5	***
3) Interspecific Female		0.504	0.231	0.777	5.60 E -5	***
4) Intraspecific <i>T. scitulus</i>		0.114	-0.114	0.342	0.55	NS

Table S3.4. Tests of interspecific and intraspecific differences in body size. *Trochilus scitulus* = black, and *T. polytmus* = red. (A) Analysis of variance for bill width. (B) Post-hoc Tukey Test comparisons to determine which comparisons are significant at the 0.05 (*), 0.01 (**), and 0.001 level (***). Comparisons are between 1) male *T. scitulus* and male *T. polytmus*, 2) male and female *T. scitulus*, 3) female *T. scitulus* and female *T. polytmus*, and 4) male and female *T. polytmus*.

(A)	Degrees of Freedom	Sum Squares	Mean Squares	F	p-value	Significance
Group	3	377.4	125.8	283.5	2.00E-16	***
Residuals	149	66.1	0.44			

(B)	Comparison	Difference	Lower	Upper	Adj. p-value	Significance
	1) Intraspecific <i>T. scitulus</i>	-3.190	-3.683	-2.698	0.000	***
	2) Intraspecific <i>T. polytmus</i>	-3.382	-3.753	-3.011	0.000	***
	3) Interspecific Male	-0.178	-0.526	0.169	0.544	NS
	4) Interspecific Female	0.013	-0.496	0.522	1.000	NS

Table S3.5. Per-locus gene diversities (Nei 1973) and allele numbers in six *Trochilus*-specific microsatellite markers for 171 individuals of *Trochilus polytmus*, *Trochilus scitulus*, and putative hybrids for 12 sites.

	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3	Site 4	Site 5	Site 6	Site 7	Site 8	Site 9	Site 10	Site 11	Site 12
Tro17	0.647/4	0.274/3	0.572/4	0.472/2	0.493/5	0.637/5	0.577/6	0.494/6	0.363/3	0.278/3	0.527/4	0.65/5
Tro5	0.894/10	0.92/9	0.864/9	0.903/8	0.785/7	0.852/9	0.846/9	0.888/14	0.893/9	0.844/8	0.91/9	0.85/9
Tro19	0.468/5	0.705/4	0.633/4	0/1	0.631/4	0.566/5	0.652/6	0.488/8	0.605/5	0.618/5	0.111/2	0.433/4
Tro6	0.862/9	0.848/7	0.871/8	0.905/7	0.881/7	0.907/10	0.807/8	0.824/9	0.79/8	0.861/7	0.792/6	0.903/9
Tro2	0.386/2	0.321/2	0.427/2	0.2/2	0.348/3	0.354/2	0.169/3	0.611/4	0.577/3	0.55/3	0.5/2	0.333/2
Tro3	0.718/4	0.777/5	0.784/5	0.75/4	0.759/4	0.676/4	0.746/5	0.734/5	0.761/5	0.694/4	0.65/4	0.672/3

Table S3.6. AMOVA Table for six *Trochilus*-specific microsatellite markers. There is a small, yet significant, percentage of genetic variation among sites ($\Phi_{ST} = 0.051$, $P = 0.001$).

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum Squares	Mean Squares	Estimated Variance	Percentage
Among Sites	11	84.890	7.717	0.237	5%
Within Sites	159	705.104	4.435	4.435	95%
Total	170	789.994		4.672	100%

Table S3.7. Allele frequency differences in reference sites for 23 informative SNP loci (46 alleles) with DAPC allelic loadings above the threshold of 0.001. The absolute difference in allele frequencies between reference parental sites is reported.

Allele	Reference <i>T. scitulus</i>	Reference <i>T. polytmus</i>	Abs. difference
LTP58155.002	0.1	0.7	0.6
LTP58155.001	0.9	0.3	0.6
LTP2447.001	0.4	0.9	0.5
LTP2447.002	0.6	0.1	0.5
LTP20160.002	0.3	0.8	0.5
LTP20160.001	0.7	0.2	0.5
LTP129531.002	0.1	0.6	0.5
LTP129531.001	0.9	0.4	0.5
LTP101621.002	0.2	0.7	0.5
LTP101621.001	0.8	0.3	0.5
LTP84654.002	0.4	0.8	0.4
LTP84654.001	0.6	0.2	0.4
LTP46068.002	0.0	0.4	0.4
LTP46068.001	1.0	0.6	0.4
LTP60803.001	0.6	0.3	0.4
LTP60803.002	0.4	0.7	0.4
LTP111732.001	0.2	0.5	0.3
LTP111732.002	0.8	0.5	0.3
LTP11923.002	0.5	0.8	0.3
LTP11923.001	0.5	0.2	0.3
LTP77030.002	0.3	0.1	0.3
LTP77030.001	0.7	0.9	0.3
LTP16537.002	0.8	0.5	0.3
LTP16537.001	0.2	0.5	0.3
LTP86688.002	0.6	0.9	0.3
LTP98902.002	0.8	0.6	0.3
LTP98902.001	0.2	0.4	0.3
LTP86688.001	0.4	0.1	0.3
LTP82072.001	0.8	0.6	0.2
LTP82072.002	0.2	0.4	0.2
LTP12516.002	0.4	0.3	0.2
LTP12516.001	0.6	0.8	0.2
LTP16188.002	0.4	0.6	0.2
LTP16188.001	0.6	0.4	0.2
LTP106396.002	0.5	0.3	0.2
LTP23234.002	0.0	0.2	0.2
LTP23234.001	1.0	0.8	0.2
LTP106396.001	0.5	0.7	0.2

Table continued.

Allele	<i>Reference T. scitulus</i>	<i>Reference T. polytmus</i>	Abs. difference
LTP86351.002	0.6	0.4	0.2
LTP86351.001	0.4	0.6	0.2
LTP101652.001	0.7	0.8	0.1
LTP101652.002	0.3	0.2	0.1
LTP97092.001	0.8	0.7	0.1
LTP97092.002	0.2	0.3	0.1
LTP41482.002	0.7	0.7	0.0
LTP41482.001	0.3	0.3	0.0

APPENDIX B.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR CHAPTER 4

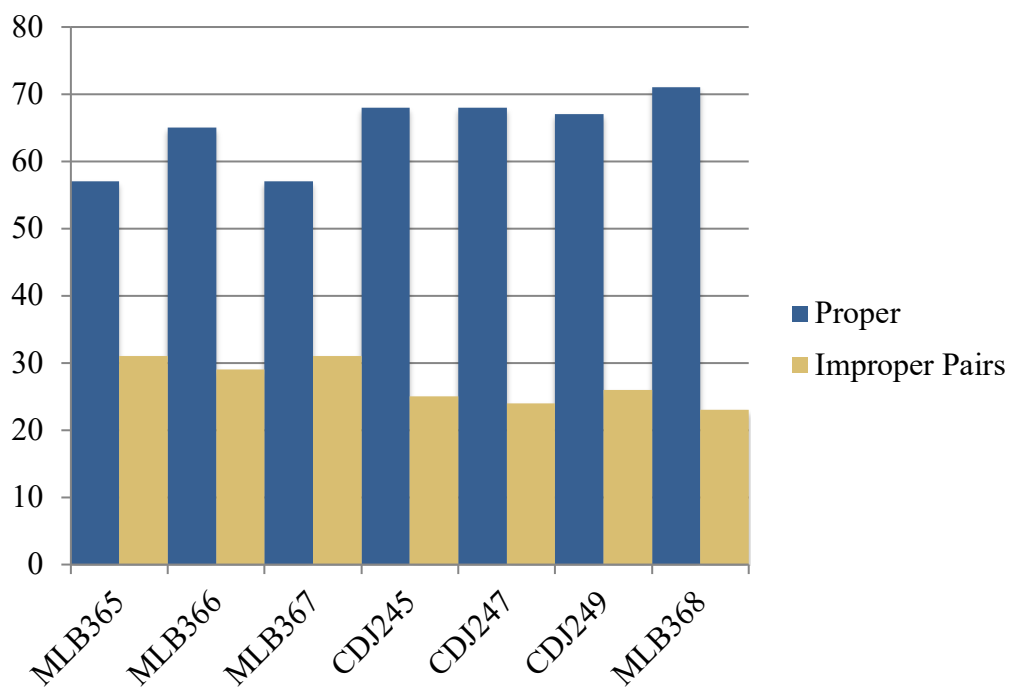


Fig. S4.1. The percentage of proper vs. improper pairs in seven libraries.

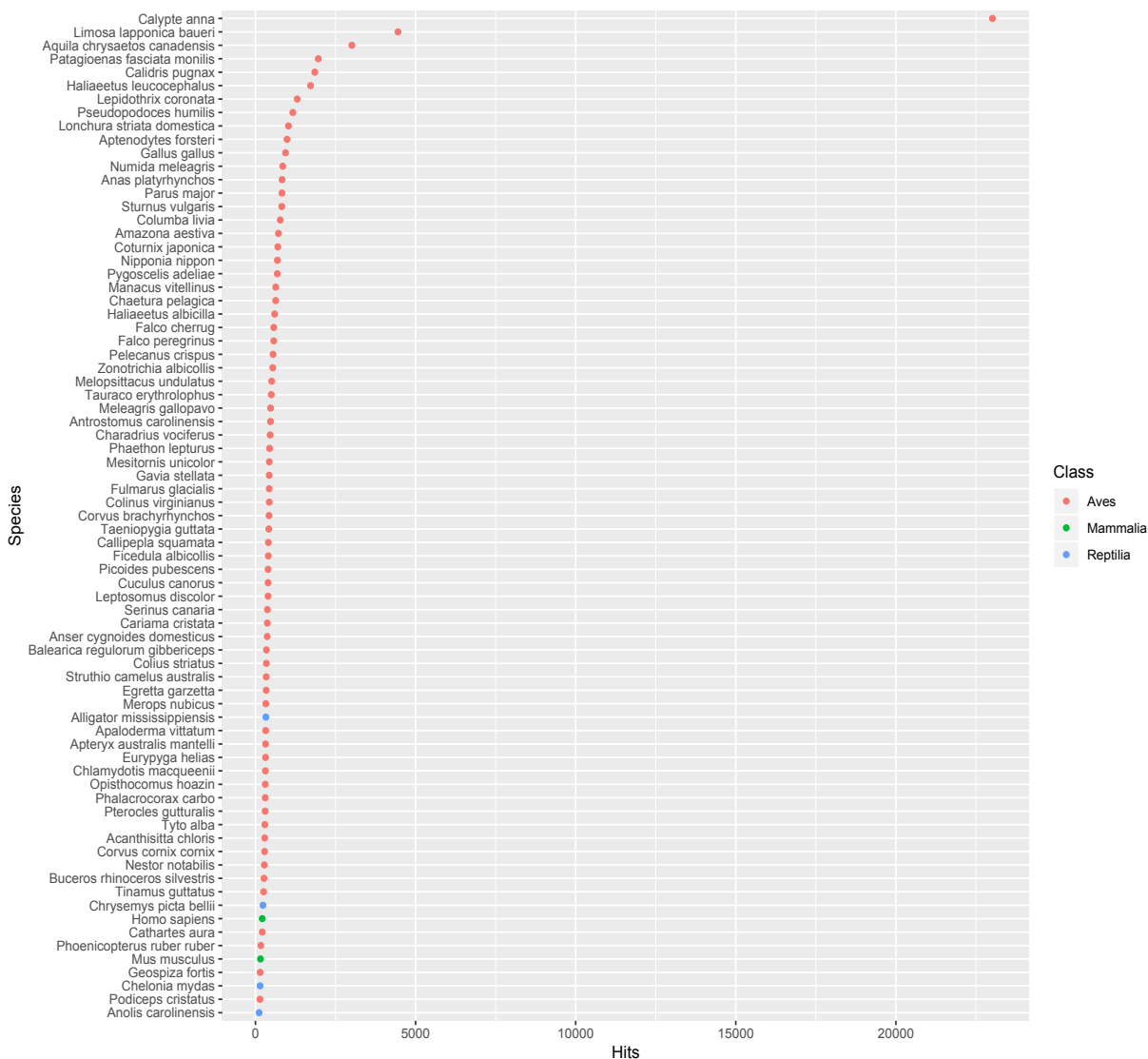


Fig. S4.2. The 75 species associated with the highest number of blast hits against the nr database using a minimum e-value of 1E-6. Only 6 of 75 are non-avian species.

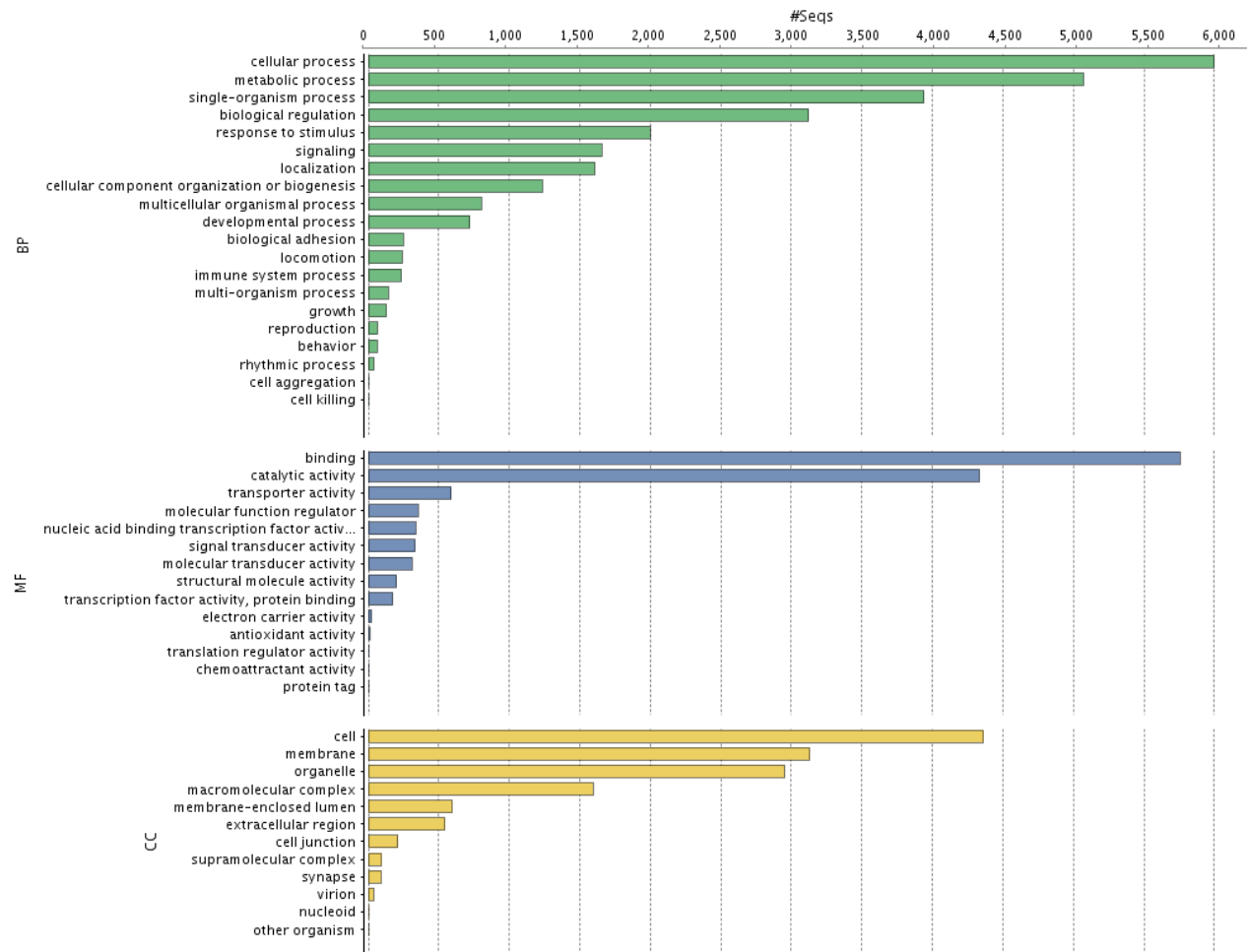


Fig. S4.3. The top 20 gene ontology (GO) terms mapped by by Blast2Go using blastx hits against NCBI's non-redundant protein database. GO terms are categorized by biological process (bp), molecular function (mf), and cellular component (cc).

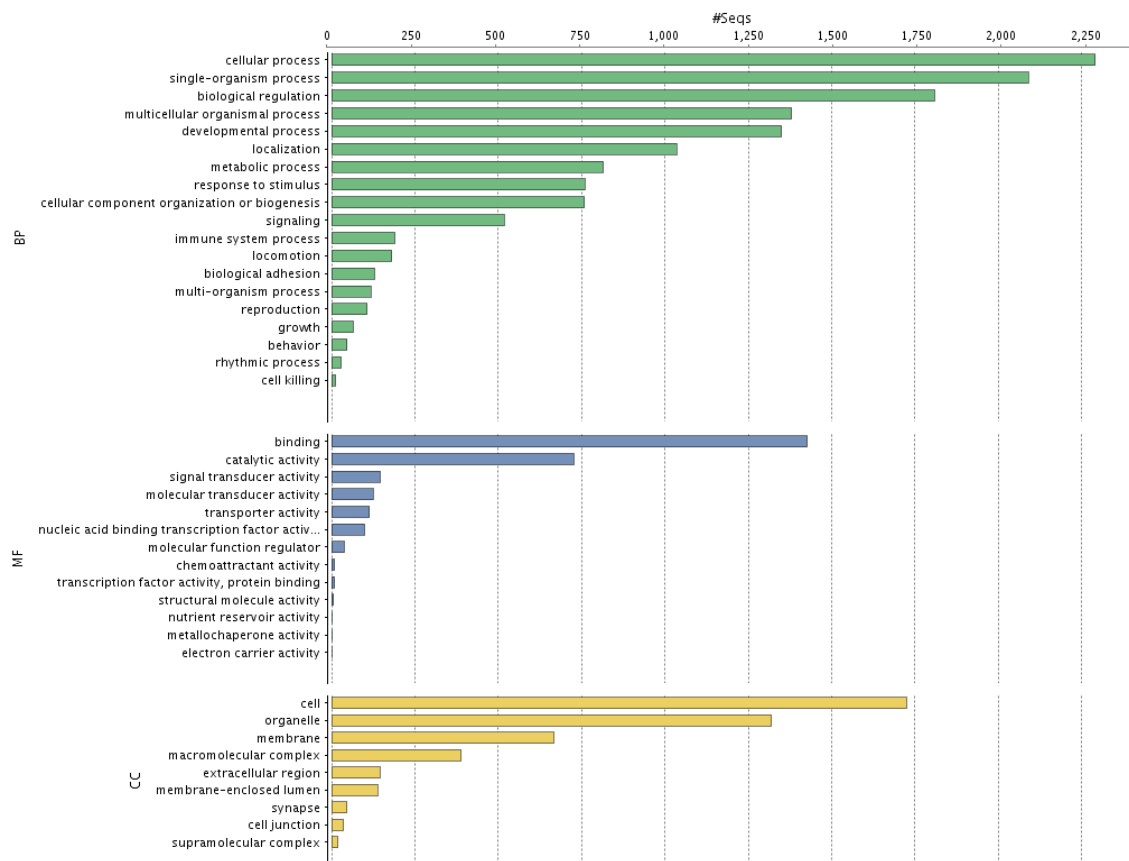


Fig. S4.4. The top 20 gene ontology (GO) terms mapped by Blast2Go using blastx hits against a custom-made candidate melanin gene database. GO terms are categorized by biological process (bp), molecular function (mf), and cellular component (cc).

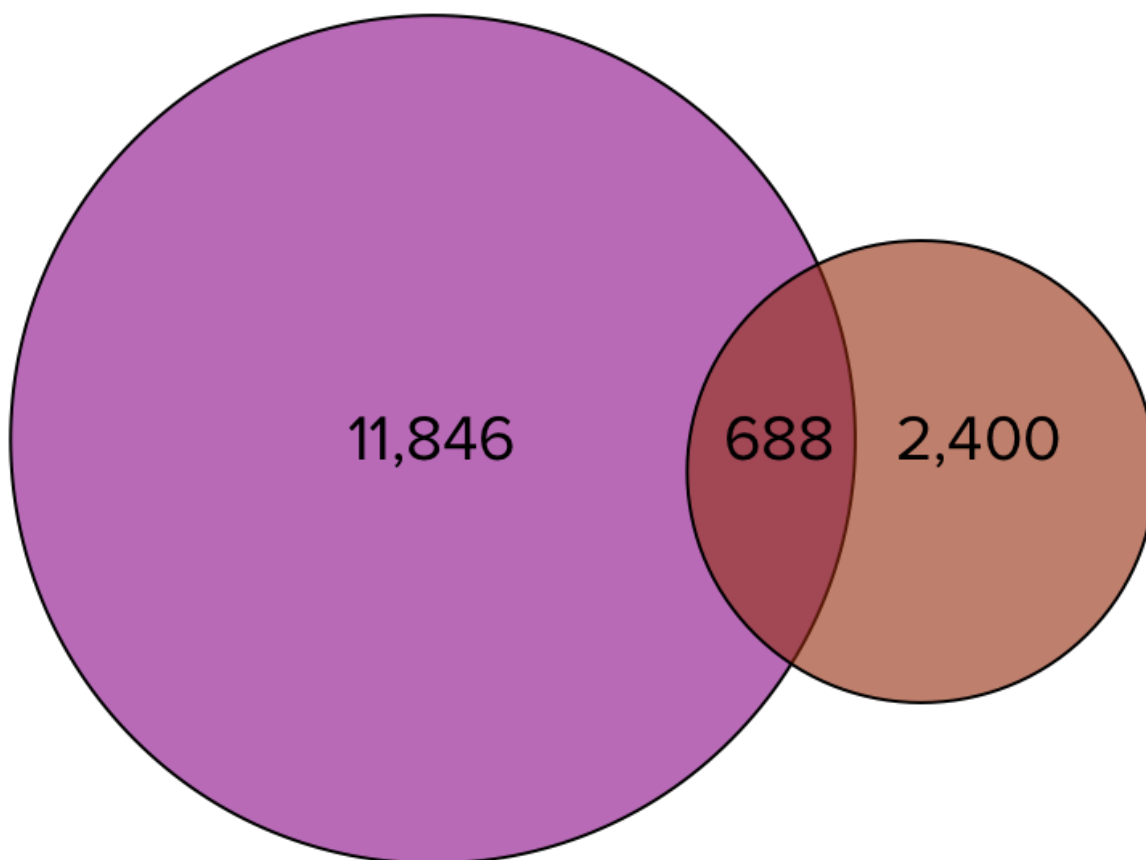


Fig. S4.5. Venn Diagram showing of annotated transcripts by Blast2Go using searches against the nr database (purple), and the pigmentation gene database (brown). Area of overlap represents transcripts recovered in both databases.

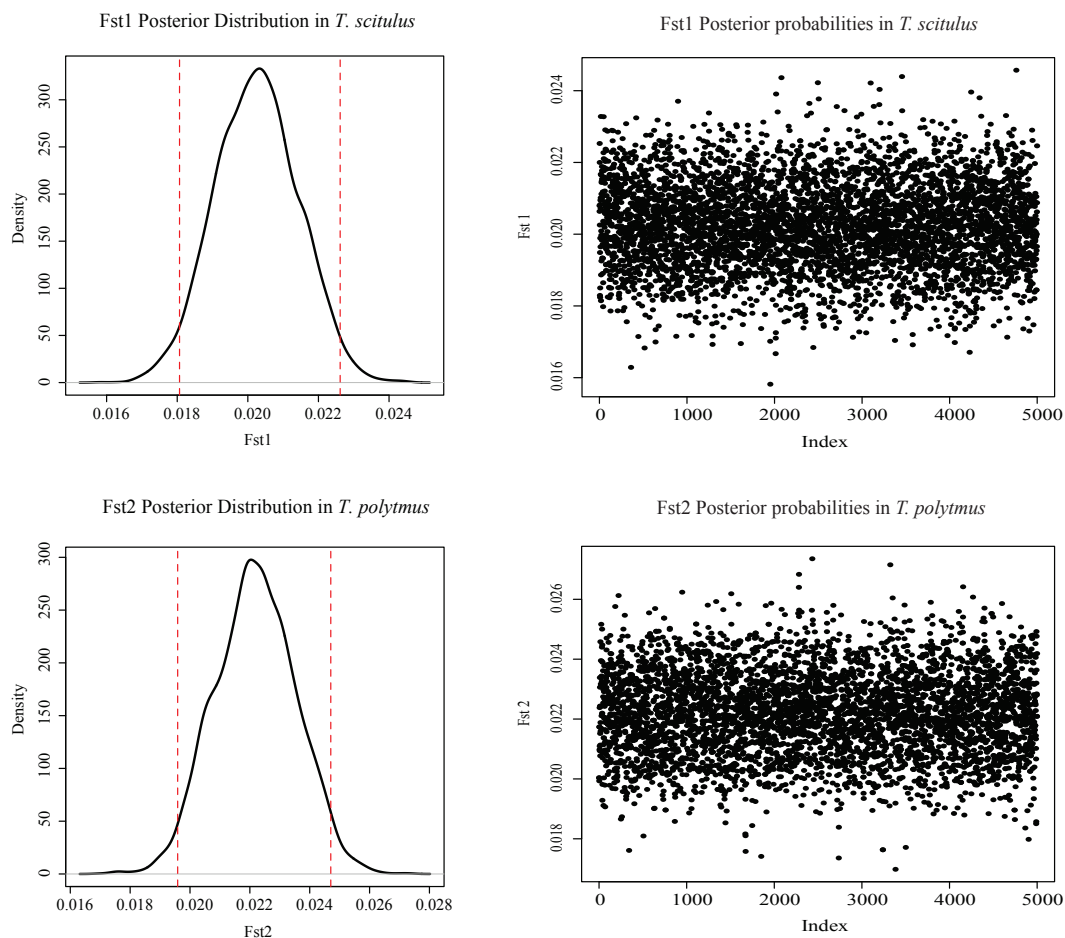


Fig. S4.6. Bayesian distribution of posterior values for F_{ST} coefficients in *T. polytmus* and *T. scitulus*.

Table S4.1. Summary of trimming report from Trim_Galore! Library and field ID are presented along with the total number of reads processed, the percentage of reads in which adapters were detected, the number of reads written (passing filters), the number of base pairs that were processed, of those, the number that were trimmed off due to low quality, and the total number of base pairs written (passing filters). Finally, the number of pairs that were removed due to one or both reads being shorter than the 20 base pair threshold is reported.

Library	Field ID	Total reads processed	Reads with adapters	Reads written	Total base pairs processed	Quality-trimmed	Total written (filtered)	Pairs removed
2992 R1	CDJ_238	41,646,381	32,365,602 (77.7%)	41,646,381 (100.0%)	6,288,603,531	1,165,590,158 (18.5%)	2,653,737,344 (42.2%)	24,014,755 (57.66%)
2992 R2	CDJ_238	41,646,381	32,120,352 (77.1%)	41,646,381 (100.0%)	6,288,603,531	1,657,451,456 (26.4%)	2,536,157,267 (40.3%)	
2993 R1	CVD_245	31,192,389	11,244,559 (36.0%)	31,192,389 (100.0%)	4,710,050,739	101,131,257 (2.1%)	4,437,245,601 (94.2%)	1,502,540 (4.82%)
2993 R2	CVD_245	31,192,389	10,820,871 (34.7%)	31,192,389 (100.0%)	4,710,050,739	418,937,519 (8.9%)	4,127,812,558 (87.6%)	
2994 R1	CVD_247	42,526,219	14,935,488 (35.1%)	42,526,219 (100.0%)	6,421,459,069	84,364,693 (1.3%)	6,140,644,191 (95.6%)	1,284,787 (3.02%)
2994 R2	CVD_247	42,526,219	14,195,284 (33.4%)	42,526,219 (100.0%)	6,421,459,069	510,926,313 (8.0%)	5,724,904,881 (89.2%)	
2995 R1	CVD_249	31,218,859	11,775,802 (37.7%)	31,218,859 (100.0%)	4,714,047,709	158,301,579 (3.4%)	4,292,435,053 (91.1%)	2,579,943 (8.26%)
2995 R2	CVD_249	31,218,859	11,210,407 (35.9%)	31,218,859 (100.0%)	4,714,047,709	503,370,854 (10.7%)	3,959,131,277 (84.0%)	
2996 R1	MLB_365	43,809,429	15,867,589 (36.2%)	43,809,429 (100.0%)	6,615,223,779	118,465,186 (1.8%)	6,239,840,226 (94.3%)	1,931,849 (4.41%)

Table continued.

Library	Field ID	Total reads processed	Reads with adapters	Reads written	Total base pairs processed	Quality-trimmed	Total written (filtered)	Pairs removed
2996 R2	MLB_365	43,809,429	15,135,014 (34.5%)	43,809,429 (100.0%)	6,615,223,779	556,690,084 (8.4%)	5,815,595,407 (87.9%)	
2997 R1	MLB_366	27,943,516	10,459,187 (37.4%)	27,943,516 (100.0%)	4,219,470,916	76,287,305 (1.8%)	3,966,355,407 (94.0%)	1,246,020 (4.46%)
2997 R2	MLB_366	27,943,516	9,942,145 (35.6%)	27,943,516 (100.0%)	4,219,470,916	357,014,488 (8.5%)	3,693,383,672 (87.5%)	
2998 R1	MLB_367	45,448,617	16,268,033 (35.8%)	45,448,617 (100.0%)	6,862,741,167	113,328,878 (1.7%)	6,513,842,168 (94.9%)	1,757,856 (3.87%)
2998 R2	MLB_367	45,448,617	15,750,481 (34.7%)	45,448,617 (100.0%)	6,862,741,167	540,593,197 (7.9%)	6,098,495,144 (88.9%)	
2999 R1	MLB_368	41,743,217	13,647,831 (32.7%)	41,743,217 (100.0%)	6,303,225,767	505,031,548 (8.0%)	5,623,207,733 (89.2%)	1,488,198 (3.57%)
2999 R2	MLB_368	41,743,217	14,329,941 (34.3%)	41,743,217 (100.0%)	6,303,225,767	92,740,630 (1.5%)	6,025,219,458 (95.6%)	

Table S4.2. Assessment of assembly quality using contig N50 statistics. I report the contig N50 based on all transcripts, and the longest isoform per gene.

Contig Stat	All Transcripts	Longest Isoform per Gene
Contig N10	4,768	3,699
Contig N20	3,336	2,312
Contig N30	2,480	1,550
Contig N40	1,848	1,090
Contig N50	1,360	814

Table S4.3. ExN50 Statistics. The minimum expression, E-N50, and number of transcripts are given for each E-N50 value.

#E	Min. Exp.	E-N50	Num. Transcripts
E24	355,540	1,587	1
E42	270,213	1,587	2
E52	191,234	1,196	3
E61	187,119	1,587	4
E64	40,823	1,531	5
E67	32,340	1,531	6
E69	29,519	1,587	7
E70	17,144	1,587	8
E71	12,418	1,587	9
E72	10,911	1,644	10
E73	7,244	1,786	12
E74	4,923	1,786	14
E75	3,629	1,644	18
E76	2,544	1,637	23
E77	2,043	1,531	28
E78	1,654	1,437	35
E79	1,596	1,531	42
E80	1,255	1,532	51
E81	976	1,403	61
E82	788	1,396	76
E83	582	1,299	94
E84	465	1,196	118
E85	351	1,161	150
E86	273	1,273	189
E87	202	1,322	242
E88	141	1,287	313
E89	102	1,396	413
E90	65	1,448	562
E91	40	1,669	807
E92	23	1,757	1199
E93	14	1,845	1859
E94	8	1,961	2996
E95	5	2,137	5054
E96	2	2,263	8923
E97	1	2,351	17191
E98	0	2,206	36161
E99	0	1,844	73255
E100	0	1,455	162824

Table S4.4 Assessment of assembly quality using the number of full length coding sequences recovered by Blastx against the SWISSPROT database. The last column is the cumulative count of transcripts. For example, 7,426 transcripts contain greater than 80% of the protein sequence length.

Percent Coverage Bin	Count in Bin	Cumulative Count
100	5,233	5,233
90	1264	6,497
80	929	7,426
70	945	8,371
60	1117	9,488
50	1200	10,688
40	1342	12,030
30	1558	13,588
20	1580	15,168
10	716	15,884

Table S4.5. The GO terms discovered using the AMIGO2 browser used to search for relevant pigmentation genes.

GO Term	Description
GO:0006583	melanin biosynthetic process from tyrosine
GO:0006582	melanin metabolic process
GO:0030354	melanin-concentrating hormone activity
GO:0030273	melanin-concentrating hormone receptor activity
GO:0042438	melanin biosynthetic process
GO:0046150	melanin catabolic process
GO:0031778	type 2 melanin-concentrating hormone receptor binding
GO:0031776	melanin-concentrating hormone receptor binding
GO:0031777	type 1 melanin-concentrating hormone receptor binding
GO:0048023	positive regulation of melanin biosynthetic process
GO:0048022	negative regulation of melanin biosynthetic process
GO:0048021	regulation of melanin biosynthetic process
GO:0031409	pigment binding
GO:0043324	pigment metabolic process involved in developmental pigmentation
GO:0097324	melanocyte migration
GO:0097325	melanocyte proliferation
GO:0042470	melanosome
GO:0003406	retinal pigment epithelium development
GO:0042440	pigment metabolic process
GO:0032438	melanosome organization
GO:0046149	pigment catabolic process
GO:0046148	pigment biosynthetic process
GO:1903232	melanosome assembly
GO:0036485	dorsolateral trunk neural crest cell migration
GO:0035006	melanization defense response
GO:0036160	melanocyte-stimulating hormone secretion
GO:0075043	maintenance of turgor in appressorium by melanization
GO:0042470	melanosome
GO:0035646	endosome to melanosome transport
GO:1902908	regulation of melanosome transport
GO:1902909	negative regulation of melanosome transport
GO:1902910	positive regulation of melanosome transport
GO:0034493	melanosome lumen
GO:0032401	establishment of melanosome localization
GO:0032402	melanosome transport
GO:0032400	melanosome localization
GO:0032438	melanosome organization
GO:1903056	regulation of melanosome organization
GO:1903057	negative regulation of melanosome organization

Table continued.

GO Term	Description
GO:1903058	positive regulation of melanosome organization
GO:0033162	melanosome membrane
GO:1903232	melanosome assembly
GO:0017044	melanocyte-stimulating hormone activity
GO:1990680	response to melanocyte-stimulating hormone
GO:0035656	kinesin-associated melanosomal adaptor activity
GO:0031084	<i>BLOC-2</i> complex
GO:0031085	<i>BLOC-3</i> complex
GO:0031082	<i>BLOC</i> complex
GO:0031083	<i>BLOC-1</i> complex
GO:0008502	melatonin receptor activity
GO:0036461	<i>BLOC-2</i> complex binding

Table S4.6. List of 486 accessions of melanin-based pigmentation genes in the custom database.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
ANKRD27	H0ZFM1	100223380	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Ankyrin repeat domain 27
ANKRD27	R4GL41	415766	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ankyrin repeat domain 27
ANKRD27	U3IWN8	101790732	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ankyrin repeat domain 27
ANKRD27	U3JBV6	101806832	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Ankyrin repeat domain 27
ANXA6	P51901	395481	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Annexin A6
AP1G1	H0ZDB3	100217944	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 gamma 1 subunit
AP1G1	U3J3Q9	101790053	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 gamma 1 subunit
AP1G1	U3JIW1	101817419	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 gamma 1 subunit
AP1M1	H0YR12	100227179	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 mu 1 subunit
AP1M1	Q5ZMG7	420149	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 mu 1 subunit
AP1M1	U3INH6	101797387	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 mu 1 subunit
AP1M1	U3KG68	101808882	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 1 mu 1 subunit
AP3B1	E1BW97	427646	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	AP-3 complex subunit beta
AP3B1	H0Z0I6	100226392	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	AP-3 complex subunit beta
AP3D1	G1MTH1	100546834	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 3 delta 1 subunit
AP3D1	H0YPU7	100228101	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Adaptor related protein complex 3 delta 1 subunit
AP3D1	U3IQE6	101790870	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	AP-3 complex subunit delta
ASIP	G1MTH0	100542191	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Agouti signaling protein
ASIP	U3K7P9	101806912	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Agouti signaling protein
ATP6V0A1	Q9I8D0	395474	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	V-type proton ATPase 116 kDa subunit a isoform 1
BLOC1S2	G1N6K3	100545527	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S2
BLOC1S4	F1NWV3	421000	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S4 (cpo)
BLOC1S4	H0ZEZ2	100229155	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S4
BLOC1S5	A0A091RU56	104537634	<i>Mesitornis unicolor</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S5

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
BLOC1S5	A0A093G7D0	104308915	<i>Picoides pubescens</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S5
BLOC1S5	Q5ZK77	420866	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S5
BLOC1S5	H0YVW5	100227726	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S5
BLOC1S6	Q5ZIM2	415447	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1S6 (Pldn)
BMP4	A5HMF8	101803077	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Bone morphogenetic protein 4
BSG	P17790	770363	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Basigin
CDH3	U3JK13	101805798	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Cadherin 3
CNP	H0YW77	100223675	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	2,3-cyclic-nucleotide 3-phosphodiesterase
CNP	O57389	395921	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	2,3-cyclic-nucleotide 3-phosphodiesterase
DCT	O93505	395775	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	L-dopachrome tautomerase
DCT	H0ZLV3	100230498	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Dopachrome tautomerase
DCT	U3J2E9	101792699	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Dopachrome tautomerase
DCT	U3JPL0	101812075	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Dopachrome tautomerase
DTNBP1	G1MVC8	100549563	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Dystrobrevin binding protein 1
DTNBP1	G3UV03	100549563	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Dystrobrevin binding protein 1
DTNBP1	U3KG51	101819807	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Dystrobrevin binding protein 1
DTNBP1	Q5ZKM0	420840	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Dysbindin
FAP	F1NDP3	424186	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
FAP	H0Z954	100228501	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Fibroblast activation protein alpha
FAP	U3JD75	101808860	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Fibroblast activation protein alpha
GCHFR	G1MVC2	100540224	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	GTP cyclohydrolase I feedback regulator
GCHFR	H0Z8D6	100220034	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	GTP cyclohydrolase I feedback regulator
GCHFR	U3KB51	101809670	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	GTP cyclohydrolase I feedback regulator
GPR143	E1BRL2	418652	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	G protein-coupled receptor 143
GPR143	G1NPE8	100545250	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	G protein-coupled receptor 143

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
GPR143	H0ZDT4	100224689	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	G protein-coupled receptor 143
GPR143	U3IDB0	101795267	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	G protein-coupled receptor 143
GPR143	U3JPJ9	101806142	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	G protein-coupled receptor 143
GPR50	F1NEF4	396318	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GPR50	P49288	396318	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melatonin receptor type 1C
HPS1	H0ZGW7	100222793	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	HPS1, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 3S1
HPS1	Q5ZIL0	429879	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	HPS1, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 3S1
HPS1	U3IX30	101793973	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	HPS1, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 3S1
HPS3	G1NEX7	100549787	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	HPS3, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S1
HPS3	H0ZMI5	100232307	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	HPS3, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S1
HPS3	U3IHW9	101789779	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	HPS3, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S1
HPS4	F1NQT3	416907	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	HPS4, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 3S2
HPS4	G1N533	100542291	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	HPS4, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 3S2
HPS5	G1N610	100549976	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	HPS5, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S2
HPS5	H0ZEZ8	100222927	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	HPS5, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S2
HPS5	U3ICC4	101801874	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	HPS5, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S2
HPS5	U3K9B1	101821001	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	HPS5, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S2
HPS6	E1C2Y8	770328	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	HPS6, biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 2S3
HSP90AA1	P11501	423463	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Heat shock protein HSP 90-alpha
HSP90AB1	Q04619	396188	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Heat shock cognate protein HSP 90-beta
IHH	H9KZS8	395801	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Hedgehog protein
IHH	Q98938	395801	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Indian hedgehog protein C-product
KIF13A	F1P140	420832	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Kinesin family member 13A
KIF13A	G1MUW7	100547928	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Kinesin family member 13A
KIF13A	U3ICL4	101794022	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Kinesin family member 13A

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
KIF13A	U3KGB9	101820984	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Kinesin family member 13A
KIT	G1NH11	100542786	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	KIT proto-oncogene receptor tyrosine kinase
KIT	H0ZBL7	100221238	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	KIT proto-oncogene receptor tyrosine kinase
KIT	Q08156	378783	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Mast/stem cell growth factor receptor Kit
KIT	U3I8W5	101796083	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	KIT proto-oncogene receptor tyrosine kinase
KXD1	H0YS17	100229067	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LAMP1	G3UUP0	100548531	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Lysosomal associated membrane protein 1
LAMP1	U3J7H8	101795078	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Lysosomal associated membrane protein 1
LOC100190527	B5G4H7	100190527	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Putative snapin
LOC100218322	H0Z6L6	100218322	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Dystrobrevin binding protein 1
LOC100219393	H0ZBN4	100219393	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 2
LOC100539772	G1NE37	100539772	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC100547273	G1NEL7	100547273	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Fibroblast activation protein alpha
LOC100549505	G1NRE4	100549505	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC100550272	G1NPI8	100550272	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	OCA2 melanosomal transmembrane protein
LOC101799623	U3ISJ2	101799623	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Fibroblast activation protein alpha
MED1	E1BUI5	420004	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Mediator of RNA polymerase II transcription subunit 1
MED1	U3J0Z2	101795501	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Mediator of RNA polymerase II transcription subunit 1
MLANA	E1C403	769648	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melan-A
MLANA	U3I7Z8	101797582	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Melan-A
MLANA	U3K7R0	101810085	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Melan-A
MREG	E1BQS6	424013	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melanoregulin
MREG	H0Z094	100231672	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Melanoregulin
MTNR1A	A0A093GEJ9	104301790	<i>Picoides pubescens</i>	Melatonin receptor type 1A
MTNR1A	Q0ZAL0	751586	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Mel-1a melatonin receptor

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
MTNR1A	U3K9C9	101818649	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Melatonin receptor 1A
MTNR1B	Q3LTL8	751588	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Mel-1b melatonin receptor
MTNR1B	U3JBY1	101813273	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
MYO5A	H0Z8L0	100225447	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Myosin VA
MYO5A	U3I653	101798412	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Myosin VA
MYO7A	G1NQT3	100543555	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Myosin VIIA
MYO7A	U3IJE5	101796115	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Myosin VIIA
MYRIP	G1NGS3	100543829	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Myosin VIIA and Rab interacting protein
MYRIP	H0Z2L2	100221630	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Myosin VIIA and Rab interacting protein
OCA2	F1NES9	428009	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	P protein
OCA2	H0ZJL2	100228502	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	OCA2 melanosomal transmembrane protein
OCA2	R0LB71	101795922	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	P protein
PDIA3	Q8JG64	373899	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3
PMEL	Q98917	396007	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melanocyte protein PMEL
PPIB	P24367	396447	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase B
RAB11A	G1NBU1	100542957	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	RAB11A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB11A	Q5ZJN2	415544	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ras-related protein Rab-11A
RAB11B	H0YP88	100220367	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB11B, member RAS oncogene family
RAB11B	U3IU57	101796061	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	RAB11B, member RAS oncogene family
RAB11B	U3KBE4	101812004	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB11B, member RAS oncogene family
RAB17	E1C6J7	424017	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	RAB17, member RAS oncogene family
RAB17	H0Z014	100218317	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB17, member RAS oncogene family
RAB17	U3KE91	101810876	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB17, member RAS oncogene family
RAB1A	G1MZK2	100538875	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	RAB1A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB1A	U3IPY5	101790987	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	RAB1A, member RAS oncogene family

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
RAB1A	U3KGR4	101807437	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB1A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB27A	D2D3P4	415410	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Rab27a
RAB27A	H0Z802	100230193	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB27A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB27A	R0M2P9	101797215	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ras-related protein Rab-27A
RAB27A	U3KBY1	101810061	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB27A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB32	F1NBL3	421616	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	RAB32, member RAS oncogene family
RAB32	H0ZKG3	100224194	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB32, member RAS oncogene family
RAB32	U3KF61	101807563	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB32, member RAS oncogene family
RAB38	H0ZRQ0	100227935	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB38, member RAS oncogene family
RAB38	R0L987	101804947	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ras-related protein Rab-38
RAB38	R4GLM3	428095	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	RAB38, member RAS oncogene family
RAB9A	H0ZD10	100225146	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	RAB9A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB9A	Q5ZMI5	418635	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	RAB9A, member RAS oncogene family
RAB9A	R0LG13	101804925	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ras-related protein Rab-9A
RAB9A	U3KL70	101818022	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	RAB9A, member RAS oncogene family
RARB	U3IFR1	101793182	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Retinoic acid receptor beta
RARB	U3K3J3	101815644	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Retinoic acid receptor beta
RARB	P22448	396266	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Retinoic acid receptor beta
SEC22B	Q5ZJW4	424377	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Vesicle-trafficking protein SEC22b
SGSM2	F1N8F2	417673	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Small G protein signaling modulator 2
SGSM2	U3I723	101805400	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Small G protein signaling modulator 2
SGSM2	U3JQ99	101816085	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Small G protein signaling modulator 2
SHH	A0A091GJG3	104057035	<i>Cuculus canorus</i>	Hedgehog protein
SHH	H0YR00	100222391	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Hedgehog protein
SHH	Q91035	395615	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Sonic hedgehog protein N-product

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
SHROOM2	A0A1D5P807	418651	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Shroom family member 2
SLC24A5	S4SXD8	101798864	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 5
SLC24A5	G1N503	100550043	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 5
SLC24A5	H0Z9S7	100229271	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 5
SNAP25	G1N3J4	100545824	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Synaptosomal-associated protein
SNAP25	H0Z6W7	751982	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Synaptosomal-associated protein
SNAP25	U3IMQ0	101800247	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Synaptosomal-associated protein
SNAP25	U3K932	101810042	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Synaptosomal-associated protein
SNAP47	F1NX76	420399	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Synaptosome associated protein 47
SNAP47	U3IBF6	101801275	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Synaptosome associated protein 47
SNAP47	U3JEE0	101812229	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Synaptosome associated protein 47
SNAPIN	R4GG77	100858163	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	SNARE-associated protein Snapin
STX12	E1C319	769300	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Syntaxin 12
STX12	G1MQW4	100543272	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Syntaxin 12
STX12	H0YRF7	100223777	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Syntaxin 12
STX3	G1MWG3	100545263	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Syntaxin 3
SYTL2	U3IW92	101804717	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Synaptotagmin like 2
TBC1D32	F1N9K0	421725	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	TBC1 domain family member 32
TBC1D32	U3J594	101794603	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	TBC1 domain family member 32
TBC1D32	U3K9Q3	101814530	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	TBC1 domain family member 32
TFRC	Q90997	396191	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Transferrin receptor protein 1
TH	H0ZG94	100219119	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Tyrosine hydroxylase
TH	Q9PU40	395592	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Tyrosine hydroxylase
TH	U3KAM3	101811971	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Tyrosine hydroxylase
TMEM33	G1NHW1	100547723	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Transmembrane protein 33

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
TMEM33	U3IJS6	101801839	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Transmembrane protein 33
TMEM33	U3JJR9	101811643	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Transmembrane protein 33
TYR	G1NQP6	100538462	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Tyrosinase
TYR	H0ZRN9	100225893	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Tyrosinase
TYRP1	H0Z2R8	100218715	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Tyrosinase related protein 1
VPS33B	Q5ZL71	425858	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	VPS33B, late endosome and lysosome associated
WASHC1	F1NMK3	418145	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	WASH complex subunit 1
WNT5A	H0Z9G4	100219241	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Protein Wnt
WNT5A	Q9YGX6	395703	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein Wnt
WNT5A	R0L7T2	101802371	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Protein Wnt
ZEB2	A0A0U4VU53	424306	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 2
ZEB2	H0ZNU3	100220433	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 2
ZEB2	U3IJB5	101792999	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Zinc finger E-box binding homeobox 2
ABRAXAS1	G1N7W1	100545211	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Abraxas 1, BRCA1 A complex subunit
ABRAXAS1	G3UQ58	100545211	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Abraxas 1, BRCA1 A complex subunit
ABRAXAS1	U3IYM0	101798365	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Abraxas 1, BRCA1 A complex subunit
ACD	A0A091CMC3	104854001	<i>Fukomys damarensis</i>	Adrenocortical dysplasia protein like protein ACD, shelterin complex subunit and telomerase recruitment factor
ACD	A0A096NR79	101019163	<i>Papio anubis</i>	
ACD	A0A0C4DGT6		<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Adrenocortical dysplasia protein homolog
ADAM17	H0ZS26	100225922	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase domain 17
ADAM17	Q5ZL93	421931	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
ADAM17	U3IJI0	101794295	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase domain 17
ADAM17	U3JWV2	101814343	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase domain 17
ADAMTS20	A0A1D5P8Z5	417794	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase with thrombospondin 1M20
ADAMTS20	H0Z683	100221192	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase with thrombospondin 1M20

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
ANK1	F1NJR5	396311	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ankyrin 1
ANK1	H0Z4N4	100221183	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Ankyrin 1
ANK1	U3IF32	101792152	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ankyrin 1
ARL6	A0A091EK49	103613688	<i>Corvus brachyrhynchos</i>	ADP-ribosylation factor-like 6
ARL6	A0A091JCD1	104127768	<i>Egretta garzetta</i>	ADP-ribosylation factor-like 6
ARL6	A0A1L1RMR6	418433	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	ADP ribosylation factor like GTPase 6
ARL6	H0ZTF1	100228152	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	ADP ribosylation factor like GTPase 6
ASCL1	Q90575	386573	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Achaete-scute homologue
ATOX1	F1P2A1	770231	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Antioxidant 1 copper chaperone
ATP7A	G1N398	100550653	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	ATPase copper transporting alpha
ATP7A	H0Z6L2	100217932	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
ATP7A	U3IIB7	101794668	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	ATPase copper transporting alpha
ATP7A	U3K8S3	101811573	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	ATPase copper transporting alpha
ATP7B	F1P5C8	418879	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	ATPase copper transporting beta
ATP7B	G1NQ71	100541545	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	ATPase copper transporting beta
ATP7B	H0ZPA1	100219575	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
ATP7B	U3IFE2	101795264	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	ATPase copper transporting beta
ATRN	F1P2W2	422946	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Attractin
ATRN	G1NKN8	100540379	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Attractin
ATRN	U3IBE8	101795507	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Attractin
BABAM1	A0A1D5PX35	776677	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BABAM1	H9H0P7	100549297	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BABAM2	A0A091NWM5	103805648	<i>Acanthisitta chloris</i>	BRCA1-A complex subunit BRE
BABAM2	A0A099Z0R9	104565084	<i>Tinamus guttatus</i>	BRCA1-A complex subunit BRE
BABAM2	H0YWE9	100231620	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	BRISC and BRCA1 A complex member 2

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
BAP1	A0A091ENQ7	103614276	<i>Corvus brachyrhynchos</i>	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase
BAP1	Q5F3N6	415944	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase BAP1
BAP1	H0Z7A1	100224993	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	BRCA1 associated protein 1
BARD1	A0A091QI14	103769326	<i>Merops nubicus</i>	BRCA1-associated RING domain protein 1
BARD1	H0YXG0	100229796	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	BRCA1 associated RING domain 1
BARD1	Q5ZKJ1	424010	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BARD1	U3J7H0	101800768	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	BRCA1 associated RING domain 1
BAX	A0A218U8I9		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Apoptosis regulator BAX
BAX	H0ZZC9		<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BCL2	A0A091W0Q8	104021857	<i>Nipponia nippon</i>	Apoptosis regulator Bcl-2
BCL2	A0A099Z058	104580966	<i>Tinamus guttatus</i>	Apoptosis regulator Bcl-2
BCL2	H0YUX3	100224888	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	BCL2, apoptosis regulator
BLOC1S1	D3YVM8		<i>Mus musculus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 1
BLOC1S1	F8VP73		<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 1
BLOC1S3	A0A0D9SE31	103234853	<i>Chlorocebus sabaeus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 3
BLOC1S3	Q6QNY0	388552	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 3
Bloc1s3	Q5U5M8	232946	<i>Mus musculus</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 3
BLOC1S3	A0A218UH38		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Biogenesis of lysosomal organelles complex 1 subunit 3
BNC2	A0A093CJE8	104466556	<i>Pterocles gutturalis</i>	Zinc finger protein basonuclin-2
BNC2	F1NKP6	431604	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Basonuclin 2
BNC2	H0Z221	100221613	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Basonuclin 2
BRAP	A0A087RAZ7	103902848	<i>Aptenodytes forsteri</i>	BRCA1-associated protein
BRAP	G1N173	100548204	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	BRCA1 associated protein
BRAP	Q5ZL09	772041	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BRAP	R0KKU3	101803589	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	BRCA1-associated protein

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
BRAT1	A0A091IAY3	103532755	<i>Calypte anna</i>	BRCA1-associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	A0A091KWY1	104483021	<i>Chlamydotis macqueenii</i>	BRCA1-associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	A0A091V949	104015091	<i>Nipponia nippon</i>	BRCA1-associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	A0A093FXC2	104297137	<i>Picoides pubescens</i>	BRCA1-associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	G1MVC3	100550354	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	BRCA1 associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	H0ZCN5	100227055	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	BRCA1 associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	U3I6B0	101805396	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	BRCA1 associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1	U3KHI3	101816597	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	BRCA1 associated ATM activator 1
BRAT1L	A0A1D5PJI6	107057032	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BRCA1	Q90Z51	373983	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Breast and ovarian cancer susceptibility-like protein
BRCA1	U3I714	101789679	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	BRCA1, DNA repair associated
BRCA1	U3JDH4	101814437	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BRCC3	E1C8A6	422201	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	BRCA1/BRCA2-containing complex subunit 3
BRCC3	U3I9S5	101800040	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Uncharacterized protein
BRCC3	U3KAZ1	101808413	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	BRCA1/BRCA2-containing complex subunit 3
BRIP1	A0A087R033	103898034	<i>Aptenodytes forsteri</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A091P9C6	104318099	<i>Haliaeetus albicilla</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A091SND1	104028195	<i>Pelecanus crispus</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A091UGH3	104619663	<i>Phaethon lepturus</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A093KLT1	104083670	<i>Fulmarus glacialis</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A093R258	104051424	<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	A0A0A0ABS1	104284355	<i>Charadrius vociferus</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein
BRIP1	Q3YK19	417642	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein homolog
BRIP1	G1N6L5	100540611	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	BRCA1 interacting protein C-terminal helicase 1
BRIP1	R0LTQ8	101791710	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Fanconi anemia group J protein-like protein

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
CORIN	A0A091NM42	104276331	<i>Apaloderma vittatum</i>	Atrial natriuretic peptide-converting enzyme
CORIN	H0ZD15	100231807	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
CORIN	R0L4W7	101803071	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Corin, serine peptidase
DNMT1	Q92072	396011	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	DNA (cytosine-5)-methyltransferase 1
DRD2	A9YZQ5	428252	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Dopamine receptor D2
DRD2	O73810	100303660	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	D(2) dopamine receptor
DRD2	H0YPR8	100191007	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Dopamine receptor D2
DRD2	U3IND7	101804061	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Dopamine receptor D2
EDA	A0A1D5PK40	769069	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ectodysplasin A
EDA	H0YWU6	100220755	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Ectodysplasin A
EDAR	H0ZGY0	100221815	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Ectodysplasin A receptor
EDAR	R7VWV2	102087618	<i>Columba livia</i>	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily member EDAR
EDAR	U3J8N7	101798887	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ectodysplasin A receptor
edn3	A0A096NNF5	101003529	<i>Papio anubis</i>	Endothelin 3
edn3	A0A0S7LSX7		<i>Poeciliopsis prolifica</i>	EDN3
edn3	E0CZ86		<i>Mus musculus</i>	Endothelin-3
EDNRB	A0A094K7N2	104531749	<i>Antrostomus carolinensis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
EDNRB	H0ZQR0	100228255	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Endothelin receptor type B
EDNRB	U3IXX1	101790262	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Endothelin receptor type B
EDNRB2	F6SB94	373909	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
EDNRB2	F6SBA2	373909	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
EDNRB2	Q8JHV3	373909	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Endothelin receptor type B2
EGFR	P13387	396494	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Epidermal growth factor receptor
EGFR	H0YU95	100221035	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Receptor protein-tyrosine kinase
EGFR	U3I5P3	101797830	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Receptor protein-tyrosine kinase

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
EGFR	U3JQX4	101818290	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Receptor protein-tyrosine kinase
ELOVL3	E7E8G6	770955	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids protein
ELOVL3	R4GLY7	770955	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Elongation of very long chain fatty acids protein
FGFR2	A0A091Q458	104350125	<i>Leptosomus discolor</i>	Fibroblast growth factor receptor
FGFR2	F1NEE9	396259	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Fibroblast growth factor receptor
FGFR2	H0ZLZ4	100223379	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Fibroblast growth factor receptor
FIG4	A0A091NPF1	104277194	<i>Apaloderma vittatum</i>	Polyphosphoinositide phosphatase
FIG4	H0ZPC1	100229159	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	FIG4 phosphoinositide 5-phosphatase
GGT1	F1NVY4	416945	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GGT1	H0ZIK1	100219009	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GGT1	U3IKT8	101799199	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GGT1	U3JXW3	101809751	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GNA11	P45645	100151748	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein subunit alpha-11
GNA11	H0YQK2	100219505	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	G protein subunit alpha 11
GNA11	Q71RI7	374077	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein G11 alpha-subunit
GNA11	U3I8L6	101802177	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	G protein subunit alpha 11
GNAQ	A0A091SUP8	104402875	<i>Nestor notabilis</i>	Guanine nucleotide-binding protein G(Q) subunit alpha
GNAQ	Q5F3B5	427262	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	G protein subunit alpha q
GPNMB	F1NPS6	428431	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Glycoprotein nmb
GPNMB	G1NDG7	100548752	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Glycoprotein nmb
GPNMB	H0YX20	100218700	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
GPNMB	Q90372	107309209	<i>Coturnix japonica</i>	Protein QNR-71
GPNMB	U3J0D1	101795842	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Glycoprotein nmb
HERC2	E1BW48	418682	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	HECT and RLD domain containing E3 ubiquitin protein ligase 2
HERC2	H0ZJQ4	100226646	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	HECT and RLD domain, contains E3 ubiquitin ligase 2

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
HERC2	U3I746	101796116	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	HECT and RLD domain, contains E3 ubiquitin ligase 2
HERC2	U3JN73	101810775	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	HECT and RLD domain, contains E3 ubiquitin protein 2
IRF4	A0A093BMM9	104377901	<i>Tauraco erythrolophus</i>	Interferon regulatory factor 4
IRF4	A0A099ZHV4	104573389	<i>Tinamus guttatus</i>	Interferon regulatory factor 4
IRF4	H0YV95	100223845	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Interferon regulatory factor 4
IRF4	Q98TX7	374179	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Interferon regulatory factor 4
KITLG	A0A024RBC0	4254	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	Kit ligand
KITLG	A0A1B2TT44	397509	<i>Sus scrofa</i>	Kit ligand
Kitlg	A0A250XXE1	109685488	<i>Castor canadensis</i>	Kit ligand
KITLG	Q2I093	100009028	<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus</i>	Kit ligand
Kitlg	Q54A14	60427	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	Kit ligand
KRT1	A0A096NAU0	101003537	<i>Papio anubis</i>	Keratin 1
Krt1	A0A0G2JST3	300250	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal 1
Krt1	I3M820	101971797	<i>Ictidomys tridecemlineatus</i>	Keratin 1
KRT10	E1C6Q9	771977	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
KRT12	F1NDN6	428314	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin 12
KRT12	A0A218UN40		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 12
KRT12	U3JC60		<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Keratin 12
KRT13	A0A218UMF6		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 13
KRT14	A0A1D5PZ89	408039	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 14
KRT14	Q6PVZ1	408039	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 14
KRT14	A0A218UMW9		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 14
KRT14	F1NPR7		<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 14
KRT15	A0A1D5NZL6	408040	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
KRT15	A0A1D5P5Z4	408040	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
KRT15	F1NDN5	408040	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
KRT17	A0A1D5PXW6	100858439	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 14
KRT17	A0A218ULZ4		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Keratin, type I cytoskeletal 17
KRT4	H0Z0C5		<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Keratin 4
KRT4	U3IFQ5		<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Keratin 4
KRT4	U3JP95		<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Keratin 4
KRT4	U3JP96		<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Keratin 4
KRT5	Q6PVZ5	407779	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Type II alpha-keratin IIA
KRT5	A0A1L1RIW5		<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
KRT7	O93532	395772	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal cochlear
KRT7	A0A146F0A0		<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal cochlear
KRT7	A0A1L1RNH7		<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Keratin 7
KRT7	U3JPW5		<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Keratin 7
KRT8	Q969I0		<i>Homo sapiens</i>	KRT8 protein
KRT8	W5ULL9		<i>Ictalurus punctatus</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal 8
KRT8	A0A1V4J5G0		<i>Patagioenas fasciata</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal 8
KRT8	A0A218UCT8		<i>Lonchura striata</i>	Keratin, type II cytoskeletal 8
KRT8	U3JP89		<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Keratin 8
KRT9L	E1C8E4	420041	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LMX1A	A0A091JJY2	104132100	<i>Egretta garzetta</i>	LIM homeobox transcription factor 1-alpha
LMX1A	E1C2D6	777133	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	LIM homeobox transcription factor 1 alpha
LMX1A	G1MX42	100549066	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	LIM homeobox transcription factor 1 alpha
LMX1A	U3IA94	101795021	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	LIM homeobox transcription factor 1 alpha
LMX1A	U3JZR7	101809606	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	LIM homeobox transcription factor 1 alpha
LOC100220827	H0Z814	100220827	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
LOC100223308	H0YR95	100223308	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC100226448	H0ZGH0	100226448	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1
LOC100229407	H0YVX6	100229407	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Keratin 12
LOC100230245	H0YYZ8	100230245	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	G protein subunit alpha q
LOC100540905	G1NG34	100540905	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Fibroblast growth factor receptor
LOC100540905	G3UTQ6	100540905	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Fibroblast growth factor receptor 2
LOC100542101	G1MVH4	100542101	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Keratin 12
LOC100545322	G1NF62	100545322	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Keratin 7
LOC100546423	G1N789	100546423	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC100547338	G1N3A2	100547338	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC100550119	G1NPI7	100550119	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	HECT and RLD domain, contains E3 ubiquitin ligase 2
LOC100550844	G1NET1	100550844	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	MOS proto-oncogene, serine/threonine kinase
LOC101791244	U3IL97	101791244	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Keratin 12
LOC101794123	U3IBV8	101794123	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	G protein subunit alpha q
LOC101797203	U3I0A3	101797203	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Keratin 7
LOC101801774	U3I6I4	101801774	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	ADAM metalloproteinase with thrombospondin 1M20
LOC101804862	U3IAT7	101804862	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC101805249	A0A0C5B1C0	101805249	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	EDNRB2 protein
LOC101809825	U3JC50	101809825	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC101815148	U3K0H5	101815148	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
LOC104574045	A0A099YW49	104574045	<i>Tinamus guttatus</i>	E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase HERC2
LOC107312830	A0PAT8	107312830	<i>Coturnix japonica</i>	Endothelin receptor B2
LOC107312830	A1IHM4	107312830	<i>Coturnix japonica</i>	Endothelin receptor B2
LYST	A0A094KVS9	104528482	<i>Antristomus carolinensis</i>	Lysosomal-trafficking regulator
LYST	A0A1D5PA68	421514	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Lysosomal trafficking regulator

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
LYST	G1NH36	100550123	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Lysosomal trafficking regulator
LYST	R0JM22	101802189	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Lysosomal-trafficking regulator
LYST	U3KGE0	101812819	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Lysosomal trafficking regulator
MAP2K1	A0A091PQD6	104322861	<i>Haliaeetus albicilla</i>	Uncharacterized protein
MAP2K1	A0A091S635	104408199	<i>Nestor notabilis</i>	Uncharacterized protein
MAP2K1	Q91447	103816115	<i>Serinus canaria</i>	Dual specificity mitogen-activated protein kinase 1
MAP2K1	Q5ZIF0	415549	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1
MAP2K1	U3J7A4	101791037	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 1
MC1R	H0ZCF4	100225710	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Melanocyte-stimulating hormone receptor
MC1R	Q59I39	427562	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melanocyte-stimulating hormone receptor
MC1R	T2AWX2	106145744	<i>Columba livia</i>	Melanocyte-stimulating hormone receptor
MCOLN3	F1NIW3	429091	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Mucolipin 3
MCOLN3	H0Z7X7	100218399	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
MCOLN3	U3JUI5	101809471	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Mucolipin 3
MGRN1	A0A1D5PJI2	416660	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Mahogunin ring finger 1
MGRN1	U3IMT8	101801804	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Mahogunin ring finger 1
MGRN1	U3JNR2	101815667	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Mahogunin ring finger 1
MITF	A0A091MWY0	104273398	<i>Apaloderma vittatum</i>	Microphthalmia-associated transcription factor
MITF	A0A094L060	104529677	<i>Antristomus carolinensis</i>	Microphthalmia-associated transcription factor
MITF	H0ZHV0	100232286	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Melanogenesis associated transcription factor
MITF	Q9IAU0	395886	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Microphthalmia protein
MLPH	B0F2C1	424019	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Melanophilin transcript variant 1
MLPH	C0ITK8	102093006	<i>Columba livia</i>	Melanophilin transcript variant 1
MLPH	U3IBW0	101793176	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Melanophilin
OSTM1	A0A093BLD0	104388159	<i>Chaetura pelagica</i>	Osteopetrosis-associated transmembrane protein 1

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
OSTM1	Q5ZMW4	421773	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Osteopetrosis associated transmembrane protein 1
PAX3	H0ZBP2	100222498	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Paired box 3
PAX3	I7EXJ2	101797445	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Paired box 3
PAX3	Q8QGS3	374127	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Paired-box transcription factor protein PAX3
Pomc	P01193	18976	<i>Mus musculus</i>	Met-enkephalin
Pomc	Q8K422	24664	<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	Proopiomelanocortin
PRKAR2B	A0A093ISZ2	104507587	<i>Eurypyga helias</i>	cAMP-dependent protein kinase type II-beta regulatory subunit
PRKAR2B	F1NC65	769420	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein kinase cAMP-dependent type II regulatory
PRKAR2B	G1N4X2	100547863	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Protein kinase cAMP-dependent type II regulatory
RECQL4	A0A0D9R7C3	103237633	<i>Chlorocebus sabaeus</i>	RecQ like helicase 4
Recql4	A0A1S3GKJ1	105999007	<i>Dipodomys ordii</i>	ATP-dependent DNA helicase Q4 isoform X2
RPL24	B5FYC4	100190138	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Putative ribosomal protein L24 variant 2
RPL24	E1C8F7	418401	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ribosomal protein L24
RPL24	U3I7V0	101793687	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Ribosomal protein L24
RPS19	A0A1D5PDV6	107050719	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ribosomal protein S19
RPS20	A0A091RA86	103780004	<i>Merops nubicus</i>	40S ribosomal protein S20
RPS20	F1NH93	430990	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Ribosomal protein S20
RPS20	H0ZLG5	100227916	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Ribosomal protein S20
SFXN1	A0A1D5PGI3	416221	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Sideroflexin
SFXN1	H0YPZ8	100226188	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Sideroflexin
SFXN1	U3INW1	101798095	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Sideroflexin
SLC24A4	E1BZM8	772279	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 4
SLC24A4	G1NKC1	100540694	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 4
SLC24A4	U3IH87	101789854	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Solute carrier family 24 member 4
SLC36A1	A0A1D5NUH4	770250	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
SLC45A2	A0A093BZV9	104472133	<i>Pterocles gutturalis</i>	Membrane-associated transporter protein
SLC45A2	A0A093GN13	104368370	<i>Tyto alba</i>	Membrane-associated transporter protein
SLC45A2	A0A093NSZ4	103912208	<i>Pygoscelis adeliae</i>	Membrane-associated transporter protein
SLC45A2	H0YUN5	100228141	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Solute carrier family 45 member 2
SLC7A11	A0A093TLJ2	104051330	<i>Phalacrocorax carbo</i>	Cystine/glutamate transporter
SLC7A11	E1C734	428731	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Solute carrier family 7 member 11
SLC7A11	G1MUY1	100541353	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	Solute carrier family 7 member 11
SLC7A11	U3J347	101797014	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Solute carrier family 7 member 11
SLC7A11	U3JQL4	101809120	<i>Ficedula albicollis</i>	Solute carrier family 7 member 11
SMARCA5	E1C0M8	422457	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	SWI/SNF related, actin dependent regulator of chromatin
SMARCA5	H0YW21	100223859	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	SWI/SNF related, actin dependent regulator of chromatin
SMARCA5	U3IP13	101793520	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	SWI/SNF related, actin dependent regulator of chromatin
SNAI2	A0A094K3V3	104532646	<i>Antristomus carolinensis</i>	Zinc finger protein SNAI2
SNAI2	H0ZKY0	100231698	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Snail family transcriptional repressor 2
SNAI2	R0KCR9	101804065	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Zinc finger protein SNAI2
SNAI2L	A0A1D5PN27	107055962	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
SOX10	A0A094L837	104526574	<i>Antristomus carolinensis</i>	Transcription factor SOX-10
SOX10	H0ZJN2	100222412	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	SRY-box 10
SOX10	R9PXP0	395573	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Transcription factor SOX-10
SOX18	H0ZA76	100224917	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	SRY-box 18
SOX18	Q90ZA9	374200	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Transcription factor SOX18
STX17	A0A091I2H8	103530691	<i>Calypte anna</i>	Syntaxin-17
STX17	A0A093PUL7	103756784	<i>Manacus vitellinus</i>	Syntaxin-17

Table continued.

Symbol	Accession	Entrez_ID	Taxon_Name	Protein_Name
STX17	H0ZEU8	100223398	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Syntaxin 17
TBX15	G1NN54	100541588	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	T-box 15
TBX15	R0JGZ7	101792140	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	T-box transcription factor TBX15
TBX15L	A0A1D5PDD9	100858059	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Uncharacterized protein
TFAP2A	O13111	395982	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	AP-2 transcription factor
TPCN2	F1NSV9	423141	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Two pore segment channel 2
VPS33A	A0A091HL02	103528310	<i>Calypte anna</i>	Vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 33A
VPS33A	A0A091L9H1	104475817	<i>Chlamydotis macqueenii</i>	Vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 33A
VPS33A	H0Z751	100220818	<i>Taeniopygia guttata</i>	Uncharacterized protein
WNT1	Q91029	396160	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein Wnt-1
WNT3A	A0A1D5PX88	395396	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein Wnt
WNT3A	R0LD75	101800064	<i>Anas platyrhynchos</i>	Protein Wnt
WNT3A	Q2LMP1	395396	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Protein Wnt-3a
ZIC2	A0A1D5PNB7	428021	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	Zic family member 2

Table S4.7. Transcripts with hits to *BLOC*-complex genes and gene products in a blastx search against the nr database.

Sequence Name	Description	Sequence Length	E-Value	Blast Similarity	Blast Hit Taxon
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g2_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	449	3.20E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g3_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	417	4.60E-59	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g4_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g5_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	4.60E-50	98%	<i>Latimeria chalumnae</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g6_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	4.60E-50	98%	<i>Latimeria chalumnae</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g7_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g8_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	384	1.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g9_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g10_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	449	3.00E-50	98%	<i>Latimeria chalumnae</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g11_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g12_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	3.40E-54	97%	<i>Patagioenas fasciata monilis</i>
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS2</i>	433	3.40E-44	96%	<i>Anser cygnoides domesticus</i>
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i3	<i>BLOC-IS2</i>	1080	2.40E-67	100%	<i>Calypte anna</i>
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i2	<i>BLOC-IS2</i> , partial	1247	4.90E-39	100%	<i>Calypte anna</i>
TRINITY_DN49905_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS4</i>	1502	1.10E-91	92%	<i>Haliaeetus leucocephalus</i>
TRINITY_DN46750_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS5</i> , partial	894	5.00E-101	99%	<i>Calypte anna</i>
TRINITY_DN46058_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS6</i>	1020	1.90E-61	100%	<i>Calypte anna</i>
TRINITY_DN46058_c0_g1_i2	<i>BLOC-IS6</i> , partial	462	1.10E-18	100%	<i>Calypte anna</i>

Table S4.8. Transcripts with hits to BLOC-complex genes and gene products in a blastx search against the pigmentation gene database.

Sequence Name	Sequence Description	Sequence Length	E-Value	Blast Similarity
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g5_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	6.80E-54	96%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g6_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	6.80E-54	96%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g4_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g7_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g9_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g10_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	449	1.20E-53	96%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g11_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g12_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	450	2.40E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g2_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	449	2.30E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g8_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	384	1.00E-54	94%
TRINITY_DN35505_c0_g3_i1	<i>BLOC-IS1</i>	417	2.60E-55	94%
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i2	<i>BLOC-IS2</i>	1247	7.80E-45	98%
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS3</i>	433	4.40E-49	98%
TRINITY_DN47443_c0_g1_i3	<i>BLOC-IS4</i>	1080	3.00E-58	97%
TRINITY_DN49905_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS4</i>	1502	1.50E-94	89%
TRINITY_DN52506_c0_g1_i6	<i>BLOC-IS4</i>	4377	8.60E-06	45%
TRINITY_DN52506_c0_g1_i2	<i>BLOC-IS4</i>	4282	8.40E-06	45%
TRINITY_DN46058_c0_g1_i1	<i>BLOC-IS6</i>	1020	8.80E-59	97%
TRINITY_DN46058_c0_g1_i2	<i>BLOC-IS6</i>	462	5.80E-19	92%

APPENDIX C.

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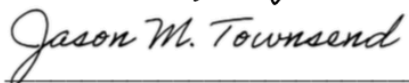
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VITA

Caroline Duffie Judy was born in Atlanta, Ga. to Carol and Traywick Duffie. She has an older sister, Lauren, and a twin sister, Amanda. While raised in a city, Caroline was always drawn to the natural world. She spent most of her childhood outside hunting salamanders, frogs, and turtles. Weekend trips to her father's hunting camp deepened her knowledge of the Piedmont forest. Caroline majored in Ecology at the University of Georgia. Her undergraduate advisor, Dr. James Richardson, encouraged her to participate in a Maymester course in Costa Rica, where she first fell in love with the tropics. She spent her senior year in Ecuador refining her Spanish and conducting independent research on Amazonian parrots. After graduating, she worked for two years as a laboratory technician at the Southeastern Cooperative of Wildlife Disease Study in Athens, Ga., before pursuing her Master's degree at University of Missouri-St. Louis under the advisement of Dr. Patricia Parker. She conducted research in the Galapagos Islands on Flightless Cormorants. Caroline then moved to Washington, D.C. to work at the National Science Foundation, where she broadened her experience with science policy and saved money to return to graduate school. Two years later, she joined Robb Brumfield's lab at Louisiana State University as a PhD student, and conducted research in Jamaica on Streamertail Hummingbirds. She married Dan Judy, a fellow Georgian, and they began their life together. They welcomed a daughter, Rosie, two years later. Caroline and Dan are active members at a Presbyterian church in Alexandria, VA. Caroline enjoys engaging in discussions of science and faith, and sees herself as a bridge builder between these communities. In her free time, Caroline enjoys playing classical guitar, cooking, and spending time out-of-doors with her family.